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UNDERGRADUATE AND JUNIOR COLLEGE LIBRARIES IN THE UNITED STATES. A REPORT PREPARED FOR THE NATIONAL ADVISORY COMMISSION ON LIBRARIES.

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Identifiers-*Higher Education Act

This study was conducted to assess undergraduate and junior college libraries and to consider future development. Major trends are seen as: resources not increasing as rapidly as the college population, increased demands on libraries due to changes within colleges, new technology, changing characteristics of library materials, increased pressure for inter-library cooperation and service to the non-college public, greater participation by the federal government, more selective acquisition, library experimentation and changing staff needs. Problem areas include: increased demand for college library facilities, inadequate collections, staffing, unique problems of junior college libraries, the need for national leaders in technical areas, copyright restrictions, a need for research and planning, existing federal legislation and governmental programs affecting college libraries, and lack of focus in college educational programs. A major recommendation is the establishment of a national commission to plan and coordinate programs and determine which college library projects should be approached at the federal, regional, and state levels. Other recommendations involve the Higher Education Act, library education and job classification, a demonstration project for junior college libraries, and copyright and other legislation. A bibliography of 48 items is appended. (JB)

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UNDERGRADUATE AND JUNIOR COLLEGE LIBRARIES IN THE UNITED STATES

A Report Prepared for the National
Advisory Commission on Libraries

Nelson Associates, Incorporated

January 1968

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January 8, 1968

Dr. Melville J. Ruggles, Executive Director
National Advisory Commission on Libraries
200 C Street, S. W.
Washington, D. C. 20204

Dear Dr. Ruggles:

We are submitting herewith our final report on college libraries for the National Advisory Commission on Libraries. We are pleased to have been associated with the important undertaking in which the Commission is engaged and hope that the material contained in this document - along with our reports on state library agencies, public libraries and school libraries - will further the cause of library and information service in the future.

Very truly yours,

NELSON ASSOCIATES, INC.

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Nelson Associates wishes to acknowledge the guidance, assistance and encouragement that was so generously extended by the members of the Advisory Committee throughout the course of this study.

All of the members of the Advisory Committee have endorsed this report.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

PREFACE i

Chapter 1 INTRODUCTION 1

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF COLLEGE LIBRARIES 2
CURRENT DEVELOPMENT OF COLLEGE LIBRARIES 6
THE ROLE OF THE LIBRARY IN THE COLLEGE 9

Chapter 2 COLLEGE LIBRARY RESOURCES 11

COLLEGE LIBRARY STAFFING 11
The Professional/Non-Professional Ratio and the Shortage of Staff 12

COLLEGE LIBRARY MATERIALS 18
College Library Materials Budgets 18
The College Library Book Collection 20
The Use of Audio-Visual Materials in Two-Year and Four-Year Colleges 20
Centralized and Decentralized Collections 23

TECHNOLOGY AND TECHNICAL PROCESSES 23
Machine Applications in the Technical Processes 23
Circulation Control 24
Application of New Techniques to Interlibrary Communication 25
Bibliographic Searching and Information Retrieval 25

THE COPYRIGHT PROBLEM: THE FAIR USE DOCTRINE 26

COLLEGE LIBRARY BUILDINGS AND EQUIPMENT 26
The Increased Need for College Library Space 27
The Kind of Space Needed 27
The Building Program for the College Library Building 28
Furniture and Equipment 29

Chapter 3 RESEARCH AND EXPERIMENTATION IN COLLEGE LIBRARY SERVICES 30

RESEARCH ON COLLEGE LIBRARY USE AND ON THE EFFECTS OF LIBRARY USE 30
The Monteith College Library Experiment 36

THE "LIBRARY COLLEGE" IDEA 39

TABLE OF CONTENTS
(continued)

Page

Chapter 4 PLANNING AND ADMINISTERING COLLEGE LIBRARY SERVICES 41

COLLEGE LIBRARY STANDARDS 41
- The Nature of the ALA Standards for Libraries in Four-Year Colleges 42
- The Nature of the ALA Standards for Libraries in Two-Year Colleges 45
- The Guidelines for Library Services to Extension Students 45
- The Regional Accrediting Associations and College Library Standards 47
- Relating Quantitative Standards to Specific Educational Purposes: The Clapp-Jordan Formula 48

ADMINISTERING THE COLLEGE LIBRARY: COMMUNICATION BETWEEN THE LIBRARY AND THE COLLEGE 51

INSTRUCTING STUDENTS IN THE USE OF THE COLLEGE LIBRARY 52

THE RELATIONSHIP OF THE COLLEGE LIBRARY TO OTHER LIBRARIES AND TO THE NON-COLLEGE PUBLIC 55
- Cooperative Arrangements with Other Libraries 55
- The Use of the College Library by the Non-College Public 60

FINANCING COLLEGE LIBRARY SERVICES 63

Chapter 5 FEDERAL LEGISLATION AND FEDERAL AGENCY ACTIVITIES AFFECTING COLLEGE LIBRARIES 65

THE HIGHER EDUCATION ACT OF 1965 65
- Title II, Part A of the Higher Education Act 65
- Title II, Part B of the Higher Education Act 66
- Title II, Part C of the Higher Education Act 67
- Title III of the Higher Education Act 68
- Title IV, Part C of the Higher Education Act 68
- Title VI, Parts A and B of the Higher Education Act 68

THE HIGHER EDUCATION FACILITIES ACT OF 1963 69
PUBLIC LAW 480 70
THE DEPOSITORY LIBRARY ACT OF 1962 70
THE NATIONAL SCIENCE FOUNDATION ACT OF 1950 71

TABLE OF CONTENTS
(continued)

Page

THE VOCATIONAL EDUCATION ACT OF 1963 72
THE NATIONAL FOUNDATION ON THE ARTS AND HUMANITIES ACT OF 1965 72

SUMMARY 72

OTHER LEGISLATION AFFECTING COLLEGE LIBRARIES; FEDERAL AGENCY ACTIVITIES AFFECTING COLLEGE LIBRARIES 76
- Legislation Related to College Library Construction 76
- Federally Supported Information Systems and Services 77
- Title III of the Library Services and Construction Act 79
- The Education Professions Development Program 79
- The International Education Act of 1966 79
- The Division of Library Service of the U. S. Office of Education 79

Chapter 6 MAJOR TRENDS IN COLLEGE LIBRARY DEVELOPMENT 81

Chapter 7 SUMMARY OF PROBLEMS FACING UNDERGRADUATE AND JUNIOR COLLEGE LIBRARIES AND APPROACHES TO THEIR SOLUTION 84

Appendix A SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY 93

Preface

This report concludes a study undertaken for the National Advisory Commission on Libraries in the summer and fall of 1967 aimed at evaluating the role, status and needs of college libraries in the United States. The scope of this survey did not extend to the conduct of original research. Rather, the objectives were to assess the recent history and current status of college libraries, to describe trends in their development, to identify problems they face and to consider possible future directions they might take. From the outset, it was understood that this document should give particular attention to the outlining of alternative approaches to the solution of major problems identified. Accordingly, these alternatives have been placed within the framework of public policy in order to provide a basis for deliberation and choice by the Commission.

The views presented in the seven chapters of this report grew out of conferences with the Advisory Committee and a study of the literature on college libraries.

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Library services have been important elements in the programs of American colleges from the very beginning of American higher education. The country's first college library was established in the country's first college, Harvard College, and students of library history have reported that eight of our nine colonial colleges had libraries by 1800. In spite of general acceptance of its importance, however, college library service has always faced difficult problems. The building of library collections which are broad, deep and responsive to the needs of college programs takes time, effort and money. A few fortunate institutions have been able to command the resources needed to sustain great libraries over long periods of time, but for most colleges, the maintenance of adequate library resources with limited funds has posed some vexing problems. Consequently, for as long as there have been "standards" for college library service, there have been many institutions which failed to meet them.

It is not easy to specify precisely what constitutes adequate library service. It is no less difficult to determine exactly what role the library should play in college instruction. Finally, meaningful, current and complete statistical information about college library activities in the United States are not readily available. Nevertheless, there is cause for concern about the calibre of library services in undergraduate and junior colleges at the present time. Measures which indicate the adequacy of services being supplied to students and teachers, such as the number of volumes per student and the number of students served for each professional librarian employed, have shown unfavorable changes in recent years. While expenditures for library resources and services in colleges have been on the increase under the impetus of substantial support from the federal government, these outlays have not kept pace with the growth in college enrollments and/or with the expanded teaching and research interests of the individual institutions.

In addition to problems caused by shortages of library resources, college librarians find themselves confronted by the demands of a rapidly changing library technology. Many of today's technical innovations have implications for college library service. The application of machine technology to various routine processes and the use of newer kinds of materials can make college library service more efficient, more effective, or both. The fact that resources are limited increases the pressure upon college librarians to adopt new and better ways of servicing the needs of students and teachers. Whereas the advantages to be gained through the adoption of the new technologies are clear in principle, however, the actual know-how frequently remains to be worked out through greater dialogues between the technical experts and library personnel.

There is no doubt that many American colleges have substantial library resources as well as programs which are vital to their educational aims. For a far greater number, however, the problems of the present are real and pressing. Many of those problems can be alleviated by public effort. Indeed, some of them can be dealt with meaningfully only through massive public support. It is the purpose of this report to identify recent major trends which have affected undergraduate and junior college library service, to discuss those problems of undergraduate and junior college libraries which are national in scope, and to propose alternative approaches to their solution.

The balance of this chapter is devoted to a brief account of the historical development of college libraries in the United States, to a review of the status of their development at the present time and to a discussion of the library's role in college instruction. Since trends and problems are more meaningful when placed in the context of certain substantive areas, Chapter 2 treats college library resources, Chapter 3 takes up the question of research and experimentation in college library service, Chapter 4 discusses the planning and administration of college library services and Chapter 5 summarizes existing federal legislation affecting college libraries. Chapter 6 serves to isolate the recent trends in college library development which are woven through these preceding chapters. Finally, Chapter 7 discusses various approaches to the solution of the major problems confronting undergraduate and junior college libraries, including legislative alternatives for dealing with those problems which lend themselves to treatment in public policy.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF COLLEGE LIBRARIES

The historical development of college libraries in the United States parallels the development of the colleges themselves. The first American college libraries were established in the nine colonial colleges located along the Atlantic Seaboard. Early college book collections were small, included many donated books, and stressed theology, as this study was a principal concern of the early colleges. Regulations concerning the use of books by students were extremely restrictive. The care of the book collection and administration of its use was usually entrusted to a faculty member as a part-time addition to his teaching duties. College administrators sought gifts and bequests of books for their library for many decades in the late 17th century and in the 18th century, though they were able to give little direct support from college funds. Harvard, the first of the colonial colleges, had the first library and received the lion's share of early gifts of books. Harvard still owns more books than any other college or university in the country.

As colleges were established in the Ohio and Mississippi valleys during the second quarter of the 19th century, small libraries were founded on their campuses. These library collections, like those in the older colleges, consisted mainly of old books, reference works and standard editions. Although specialized libraries in law, theology, and science had been founded at Harvard and other Eastern schools early in the 19th century, most collections continued to be storage collections rather than working libraries. Students used a limited number of textbooks in the main, supplementing these in some cases with books owned by student literary society libraries. The latter were established by students in some colleges because of the small collections in the college's own libraries and the restrictions placed on their use. According to one writer on the subject, these student society libraries were sometimes superior to the official college libraries in point of usefulness and sometimes even in size.[1]

Despite the fact that the early college libraries had meager holdings and received comparatively little support from their parent colleges, most library historians have felt that they were important in setting the pattern for library service in the college. In an account of the early history of the American college library written in 1934, Louis Shores wrote the following summary:

> "That the library played an important role in colonial higher education in spite of limited resources and abbreviated hours of opening is attested by several incidents, one or two of which will be cited here. For example, the Dummer collection of books was entirely responsible for turning Tutor Johnson and a group of students from the accepted Congregational to the rejected Episcopalian church. A charge of heresy directed against Harvard by Whitefield was based almost entirely upon the nature of the collection in the college library. Every prominent educator of the period stressed the importance of a library in higher education, and President Manning of Brown went so far as to declare that college could never amount to anything unless the library were developed. Towards the end of the [18th] century, the inadequacy of most of the college libraries was felt so keenly by the students that the literary societies, which began to appear for the first time, undertook to establish student libraries as one of their major purposes."[2]

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1 Johnson, Elmer D. A History of Libraries in the Western World. Metuchen, N. J.: Scarecrow Press, 1965. p. 298.

2 Shores, Louis. Origins of the American College Library 1638-1800. Nashville, Tennessee: George Peabody College, 1934. pp. 231-2.

Later, Guy R. Lyle summarized the importance of early college library development in four points:

> "1. Books were regarded as a necessity in the establishment of colleges and universities.
>
> "2. The importance of the library in the educational work of the college was recognized and supported by a considerable number of distinguished presidents in early times.
>
> "3. The desirablilty of special training for the administration and operation of the college library was recognized and the groundwork was laid for professional library education.
>
> "4. Certain patterns and procedures in college library administration were definitely established before 1900: the practice of reserving books for large groups of students assigned specific readings; the classification of books based on published classification schemes in place of homemade schedules; the idea of free access to books developed by the student literary society libraries; and the development of technical procedures for the rapid processing and distribution of books."[3]

Several developments of the latter half of the 19th century are so important as to warrant mention here. The establishment of the land grant colleges just after the Civil War led to the establishment in those colleges of specialized libraries in agriculture and engineering. At the same time, libraries in the older Eastern colleges grew rapidly, sometimes overflowing the physical facilities available for them and leading to the establishment of departmental libraries. However, classification schemes were unwieldy, cataloging of these growing collections was often poor or non-existent and, as a consequence, the collections were often little used. The development and promulgation in 1875 of the decimal system of classification by Melvil Dewey had a revolutionary effect on classification schemes. Moreover, new approaches to teaching as well as greater faculty and student interest in research led to substantial increases in the size of collections and in their use. New library facilities were constructed in many colleges and the concept of the central collection reasserted itself over the departmental library. College (and university) book collections grew more or less steadily throughout the last quarter of the 19th century and the early decades of the 20th, until 1938, when restrictions imposed by the World War II conflict slowed the rate of growth.

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[3] Lyle, Guy R. The Administration of the College Library. New York: The H. W. Wilson Company, 1945.

In 1941 Dr. Louis Round Wilson categorized the forces which had increased the educational effectiveness of the college library under three headings: (1) forces outside the college, (2) changes within the college, and (3) changes within the library.[4] Guy R. Lyle borrowed Wilson's framework for the discussion of influences on college library service contained in the first edition of his basic work, The Administration of the College Library. The forces outside the college which stimulated the development of college library service included the work of the Carnegie Corporation of New York (which in 1928 organized the Advisory Group on College Libraries to study the problems of college libraries) to support projects aimed at improved services and to award grants to selected institutions; the effect of the regional accrediting associations; the work of the graduate library schools; and, the influence of Friends of the Library groups. Changes within the college which affected college library service were the development of broad survey courses; the development of honors courses, independent study and similar curricular innovations; the general education movement; and, the trend (exemplified in small experimental colleges such as Bard, Bennington, Sarah Lawrence, and Stephens) toward giving each student instruction in the use of the library tailored to his needs as an individual. Changes originating within the library itself which affected college library service included a trend toward higher academic and professional training for college librarians; the practice of critical analysis and self-survey on the part of college libraries; a movement toward coordination and cooperation among college libraries; and, innovation in library building programs.

In a later edition of The Administration of the College Library, Lyle points out the influence of the large public library on college library development. Large public libraries led in the development of the divisional organization plan, in the introduction of audio-visual services as an accepted part of librarianship, in planning of library buildings and in the use of various labor saving devices in library operations.[5]

Private foundations have continued to be involved in activities which promote the development of college library service. In 1956 the Ford Foundation established the Council on Library Resources, an organization which has since made many grants in support of library-related research. The Rockefeller Foundation has been noted for support of scholarly publication and the development of bibliographic tools.

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[4] Wilson, Louis R. "The Use of the Library in Instruction." Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions, 1941. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1942. Quoted in Lyle, op. cit.

[5] Lyle, Guy R. The Administration of the College Library, 3rd ed. New York: The H. W. Wilson Company, 1961.

A growing public interest in the importance of library service has culminated in the passage of the library-related legislation of the late 1950's and the 1960's to date. The federal government has contributed heavily to the construction of college library buildings through the Higher Education Facilities Act of 1963, and to the growth of college library collections through Title II-A of the Higher Education Act of 1965.

CURRENT DEVELOPMENT OF COLLEGE LIBRARIES

College library development can be measured in several ways. Measures indicating library development in two and four-year colleges can be compared with each other and with measures indicating library development in universities. The percentages of two-year and four-year college libraries meeting or failing to meet the American Library Association's standards for minimum collection size or size of library staff are also important measures. Year-to-year changes in aggregate statistics for volumes per student, for volumes added per student, and for number of students served per professional librarian indicate whether these libraries are gaining or losing ground in their effort to provide quality library services to students and teachers.

Many studies and statistical measures lump figures for two and four-year college libraries together with figures for university libraries, a practice which often creates problems for the investigator interested only in undergraduate college libraries. The most recent published data which permit comparisons of library development by type of institution cover the 1961-62 academic year.[6] For that year, the Analytic Report of Library Statistics of Colleges and Universities offered a comparison of library development in public and private universities, four-year liberal arts colleges and junior colleges. As might be expected, universities sustained the greatest library development on a per student basis, colleges the next greatest, and junior colleges the smallest. Universities enrolled 42% of all students in 1961-62 but held almost 56% of all volumes, employed almost 50% of all academic librarians and spent 54% of total academic library expenditures. Liberal arts colleges enrolled 28% of all students, owned 27% of all volumes, employed 29% of all academic librarians and spent 25% of all academic library expenditures. Junior colleges enrolled just under 14% of all students but owned only 4% of all volumes, employed 8% of all academic librarians and spent 6% of total academic library expenditures. While these data are several years old, it is reasonable to expect that much the same relationships exist today.

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[6] Samore, Theodore. Library Statistics of Colleges and Universities, 1961-62, Part II: Analytic Report. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Office of Education, 1964.

Viewed in terms of success or failure in meeting ALA standards, academic library development taken as a whole has never presented a very bright picture. For instance, academic libraries (taking all types together) have never met the ALA standard for operating expenditures as a percentage of total educational and general expenditures of their parent institutions. The ALA Standards for College Libraries indicate that an appropriate level for this measure is 5%; the actual figure for all academic libraries together was about 3.3% for the 1965-66 academic year, up from 3.0% in 1959-60.[7] The 3.3% figure represented a total library operating expenditure of $320 million for all academic libraries; approximately $200 million additional expenditure would have been required to meet or exceed the ALA standard. Of the $320 million, $178.5 million (56.3%) covered salary and wage payments to personnel, $111 million (34.2%) was spent for books and other materials, and the remainder was allocated for binding and other expenses. The ratio between payments to personnel and those for library materials should, according to the ALA, stand at 2:1, but is 1.6:1 currently. While library standards do not specify an appropriate expenditure per student, this measure has shown a steady increase in recent years; academic libraries taken together spent $54.23 per student in 1965-66, up from $44.02 in 1960-61, though much of the increase has been taken up by rising costs.

In terms of total collection size, Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, John W. Gardner, recently reported that 50% of four-year colleges and 82% of two-year colleges fail to meet ALA standards for library holdings.[8] An earlier analysis indicated that among four-year colleges, 73% failed to meet the ALA standard for minimum collection size, 72% failed to meet the standard for professional personnel and 54% failed to meet standards for expenditures. Among two-year colleges, the comparable figures for institutions failing to meet standards were 91%, 86% and 57%.[9]

A final set of important aggregate measures are the number of volumes per student in college libraries, the number of volumes added per student per year and the number of students served for each professional library staff member. Table 1 on the following page which provides data for all academic libraries taken together, indicates that while volumes added per student increased over the past several years, the total number of volumes held per student has been on the decline. In terms of students served per professional librarian, academic libraries have lost ground rapidly in recent years.

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[7] American Library Association. Library Statistics of Colleges and Universities, 1965-66: Institutional Data. Chicago: American Library Association, 1967.

[8] Gardner, John W. "A Fancy Gothic Fiction." Library Journal, May 15, 1967.

[9] American Library Association. National Inventory of Library Needs. Chicago, 1965.

Table 1

VOLUMES PER STUDENT, VOLUMES ADDED PER STUDENT, AND NUMBER OF STUDENTS SERVED PER PROFESSIONAL LIBRARIAN IN ACADEMIC LIBRARIES

	Aggregate United States, 1959-60 - 1965-66		
Academic Year	Volumes Per Student	Volumes Added Per Student	Students Served Per Professional Librarian
1959-60	51.9	2.5	378
1960-61	52.4	2.6	372
1961-62	51.6	2.8	378
1962-63	49.4	2.8	388
1963-64	47.3	2.8	403
1964-65	45.5	2.6	424
1965-66	45.8	3.0	454

Source: American Library Association, Library Statistics of Colleges and Universities 1965-66, Institutional Data, Chicago, 1967, pp. 6-7.

THE ROLE OF THE LIBRARY IN THE COLLEGE

It would be possible to operate a college with no library at all. Lectures, discussions and examinations could be based on textbooks, copies of which would be owned by each student. Text materials could be supplemented through the use of paperbacks. Some courses are, in fact, conducted much this way and some students operate in this manner even when a good college library is available to them. Such students visit the library in order to use it as a study hall.

While it is possible to conduct many programs of higher education in the absence of library services, there are few educators who would turn down good library services if given a choice. The library is a shared resource for all of the students and teachers of the college. The books and other materials it provides bring meaning and content to students' endeavors. The library is able to make available to any student or teacher resources which are vastly richer than he is likely to be able to provide for himself. Further, the library has been called the "great interdisciplinary synthesizer" and a source for the student of more than one point of view on any given topic.

Some advocates of the library's value and usefulness have gone so far as to propose an instructional program centered upon library resources and services. This is seen as the logical extension of the independent study approach (by whatever name that approach is called). In such a program of instruction, the usual pattern of mandatory attendance at class meetings and lectures, mandatory textbook assignments and voluntary additional reading in the library would, in a sense, be reversed. Library reading periods would be mandatory, discussion meetings optional - that is, a student would be free to request a session with a tutor or preceptor when he felt his work required it. Each student would move at his own pace and, to some extent, in his own direction. Students would be called upon to produce papers frequently and each student would face comprehensive examinations in specific subject areas, either at the end of a specified period of time or at such time as he felt himself adequately prepared. Such an approach would bring many of the features of English and other European higher education to the American college.

Some of the principles proposed for the library-centered instructional program have been employed at colleges which do not, however, claim to be exclusively library-centered. Where this has been the case, it may be that more effective use is made of library resources and services, and that the library comes closer to a full realization of its potential contribution to the educational aims of the college. In more conventional terms, the college library is expected to "support the curriculum." It is supposed to make course materials available, as well as materials which supplement textbook readings, reference works, standard works and general works. It may be expected to provide the student with an approach to self-education to "fill in the chinks" of the curriculum, or as an instrument for use in independent study. It is expected to support the research needs of faculty members in greater or lesser degree, depending on the extent to which faculty members in the college are inclined to do research or are expected to perform it, and depending on the availability of research library facilities outside the college. The library is usually expected to support the extra-curricular reading of students and of faculty; it should make a positive contribution to the formation of students' lifelong reading habits.

The fact is that many different uses are made of library resources and services in American undergraduate and junior colleges. There is considerable variation among colleges and among different courses of study within the same college in the extent to which library resources are needed and used. Since colleges and courses of study vary so greatly, it is for each college to decide exactly what the role of its library is in the total educational program.

Chapter 2

COLLEGE LIBRARY RESOURCES

College library service in the aggregate is a vast enterprise involving many thousands of professional and non-professional workers and the annual investment of hundreds of millions of dollars in capital and operating expenses. This chapter discusses college library staffing, materials, technology and technical processes, the copyright problem and college library buildings.

COLLEGE LIBRARY STAFFING

As a rule, the college library staff is split into two basic divisions under the direction of the chief librarian - staff members responsible for readers' services on the one hand and staff members responsible for technical processes on the other. Of course, in a large college library, staff members assigned to the chief librarian's office may not be identified with either of these two basic divisions. The staff requirements for readers' services and technical processes and the specific assignments of individual staff members varies considerably according to the size of the library, the size of the student and faculty populations it serves, the services it offers and the activities it undertakes. However, the ALA's standards specify that the staff of any college library must include at least three professional librarians if effective service is to be provided. Some library professionals may be recruited not only for their training in librarianship but for their education and experience in particular subject areas which are important to the college curriculum. Such "subject specialists" can enhance the contribution of the library to the goals of the college by coordinating library resources and services with instruction in their particular disciplines.

In addition to its professional staff, the college library needs a sub-professional staff to perform clerical and technical duties of a repetitive nature. Again, the size of this staff and the nature of specific assignments will vary considerably, but it is generally agreed that the ratio of non-professional to professional staff should increase as the size of the library increases. If too large a proportion of the library staff is made up of professionals, some of these will inevitably spend portions of their time in non-professional work.

Considerable attention has been given in the past few years to the development of a "technician" class of library employee. These persons are trained, either in two-year undergraduate programs or on the job, in certain sub-professional but technical library operations.

College libraries thus may be staffed at three levels: professional, sub-professional and clerical. In addition to their regular staffs, many academic libraries employ student assistants. The amount of such assistance is considerable, amounting to a total of 9,000 workers on a full-time equivalent basis in all academic libraries during 1965-66.

The Professional/Non-Professional Ratio and the Shortage of Staff

The separation of professional from non-professional duties has been a critical issue for college as well as other kinds of libraries. In the absence of a completely satisfactory definition of "professional" duties, it is difficult to know precisely how many professionals the college library staff should include and what the ratios of this professional staff to the non-professional staff and to the student population served should be.

Despite these problems, and in spite of certain inadequacies in college library statistics - national aggregate statistics lump two and four-year college library figures together with those of universities; aggregates for different years are not based on exactly the same group of respondents; and, no adjustment is made for non-response - several measures point to an apparent shortage of professional staff members in academic libraries. In 1965-66, 13,030 professional librarians were employed in colleges and universities and there were an estimated 760 budgeted vacancies - a vacancy rate of 5.8%.[10] In applying its standards for staffing, the ALA estimated a deficiency of about 3,800 professional staff members in 1,570 two and four-year colleges which failed to meet ALA standards in 1962-63.[11] Since university library figures are included with those of colleges in the national aggregates, it may be fair to assume that certain important measures, such as expenditures per student or the ratio of professional staff to students, are higher than they would be if only undergraduate institutions were included, since universities as a group are better supported than colleges as a group.

Growth in the numbers of professional staff in academic libraries is not keeping pace with increases in the number of students served or with growth in total library staff, which in turn is failing to keep pace with increases in enrollment. The changes in these three populations - professional library staff, total library staff and students served - have been calculated for a seven-year period for which reasonably comparable figures were available. The data are presented in Table 2 on the following page.

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[10] Drennan, Henry T. and Reed, Sarah R. "Library Manpower." ALA Bulletin, September 1967.

[11] American Library Association. National Inventory of Library Needs. Chicago, 1965.

Table 2

RELATIONSHIPS OF ACADEMIC LIBRARY TOTAL AND PROFESSIONAL STAFFS AND STUDENTS SERVED SEVEN YEAR PERIOD, 1959-60 -- 1965-66

Academic Year	Total F.T.Staff (thousands)	Total Professional Staff (thousands)	% Professional	Growth in Number of Professionals (% Change from Previous Year)	Students Served (millions)	Number of Students Served Per Professional
1959-60	18.0	9.0	50%	-	3.4	378
1960-61	19.5	9.7	50%	+ 8%	3.6	372
1961-62	21.1	10.3	49%	+ 6%	3.9	378
1962-63	23.3	11.2	48%	+ 9%	4.3	388
1963-64	25.2	11.9	47%	+ 6%	4.8	403
1964-65	27.0	12.5	46%	+ 5%	5.3	424
1965-66	29.0	13.0	45%	+ 4%	5.9	454
Seven year change	+ 11.0 thousand	+ 4.0 thousand	-	-	+ 2.5 million	+ 76 students
Change as % of 1959-60	+ 61%	+ 44%	-	-	+ 73%	+ 20%

Source of basic data: American Library Association, Library Statistics of Colleges and Universities 1965-66, Institutional Data, pp. 6-7.

While the number of students served by academic libraries increased 73% in the seven-year period covered by Table 2, professional library staff increased only 44%, and the number of students served for each professional staff member increased from 378 in 1959-60 to 454 in 1965-66. Total library staff grew 61%, failing to keep pace with growth in enrollments. (Non-professional staff, not shown separately in Table 2, increased at a faster rate than enrollment, showing a 78% increase over the seven-year period.) Professional staff as a percentage of total staff decreased from 50% to 45% in the seven-year period. Students' part-time help (also not shown in Table 2) increased from a total of approximately 12 million hours in 1959-60 to approximately 19 million hours in 1965-66, a growth of 58%. On a full-time equivalent employee basis, the 19 million hours of student help in 1965-66 amounted to something more than 9 thousand FTE workers for the year.[12]

It is to be hoped that the more rapid growth of non-professional than of professional staff in academic libraries reflects a trend toward redefinition of the professional librarian's role to exclude clerical and other repetitive tasks. Writing in 1954, Robert Downs proposed a yardstick for the ratio of professional to non-professional staff in academic libraries. "If more than 50%, indeed some experts in administration say if more than one-third, of the entire staff is composed of professionals, the probabilities are that they are performing a substantial amount of clerical routine, and at the same time neglecting opportunities to make important and useful contributions of a professional character."[13] On the basis of this guideline, the current trend toward a reduction of the ratio of professional to non-professional staff in academic libraries is not to be deplored. The Standards for College Libraries avoids setting down hard and fast rules on this matter but advises that the ratio of professional to total staff should decrease as the size of the library increases. The several states which have established formulas for the ratio of professional to total staff in academic libraries in public colleges and universities have based their calculations on such factors as volume of acquisitions and size of enrollment.

Perhaps the most significant factors which can be determined from the data presented in Table 2 are the fact that total library staff in academic libraries has failed to keep pace with growth in enrollment, and the fact that total professional staff in academic libraries shows a decline in growth rate in the last three years of the period. Quality education demands more from faculty and students, who in turn demand more from the librarians who serve them. Quality library service cannot be maintained if the number of students served per professional librarian continues to rise as it has. More professional librarians are required if this trend is to be reversed, and an even more rapid rise in the numbers of non-professional staff is needed to keep the ratio of professional to total staff at a proper level.

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[12] All data derived from ALA, Library Statistics of Colleges and Universities 1965-66, Institutional Data. Chicago: ALA, 1967.

[13] Downs, Robert B. "Are College and University Librarians Academic?" College and Research Libraries, January 1954.

The numbers of graduates of accredited schools shows a steady increase (2,586 were graduated in 1965), and the percentage of these graduates employed by college and university libraries continues to rise - in 1965, 910 or 35% of the total number of 2,586 graduates were employed by college and university libraries.[14] If existing library schools are to turn out larger numbers of professional graduates, however, they will need to obtain more adequate institutional support. Present support is distressingly low. Drennan and Reed have recently reported that "in fiscal year 1967, for example, the ALA accredited library schools budgeted an average of $1239 per student. This is less than half the $2500 per student established by the U. S. Office of Education as the institutional support required to administer its fellowship program."[15]

Rising standards of quality in college instruction require, in addition to increased numbers of college librarians, an increased number of librarians with specialized capabilities. The acquisition of more foreign language (including non-western) materials creates the need for a larger number of language specialists. It has been well demonstrated, moreover, that reference librarians with strong subject specialties are able to materially improve the quality of instruction in their subject areas through their services to teachers and to students. Thus, library schools face a greater need than ever to recruit previously trained specialists for advanced library training. As the cybernetic revolution continues, greater numbers of systems analysts will also be needed in library work, and it may be appropriate to recruit persons with previous training in this field for training in librarianship.

Two problems of long standing will hamper the efforts of college libraries and of graduate library schools to recruit highly-qualified prospective librarians. They are the related problems of professional status and salary levels.

Colleges have handled the matter of the status of the librarian in various ways. Some colleges have placed librarians in a separate professional category, distinct from the faculty, while some public institutions have applied civil service criteria to determine the librarian's status. Colleges which grant librarians "faculty status" differ on the question of faculty rank; head librarians are usually granted rank while rank is less usually granted to other professional library personnel. While the status and treatment of librarians varies considerably from college to college, librarians generally are accorded fewer privileges of rank than teaching faculty members. The fact that large numbers of librarians do not teach has often been given as a reason for denying them equal status with instructional faculty. This reasoning seems to be losing its influence, however, as other non-teaching personnel attached to colleges and universities are increasingly being granted faculty status.

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[14] Bowker Annual, 1967. p. 288.
[15] Drennan and Reed, op. cit.

Better definition of professional duties and more frequent awarding of faculty rank to librarians should both operate to help attract qualified persons to careers in academic librarianship. The attitude of one librarian who became the holder of a ranked position underscores an additional advantage. Dr. Louis C. Branscomb of Ohio State University has written: "I became convinced of the value of faculty rank, both with respect to the better integration of library service in the university's teaching and research program and with respect to the advantages for the librarians."[16] Subject specialists, particularly, must be closely associated with reachers and researchers in their subject areas if they are to provide a relevant service. Co-equal status is essential.

Closely related to the matter of status is the question of librarians' salaries. Faculty status and rank do not compensate for inadequate pay scales. On the average, salaries of college librarians are much lower than those of teaching faculty.

Comparable salary data for the two groups are difficult to obtain, since librarian salaries are not reported as systematically or in as timely a fashion as faculty salaries. However, the Analytic Report of Library Statistics of Colleges and Universities, formerly published by the Library Services Branch of the U. S. Office of Education, included a treatment of librarian salaries similar to the treatment of faculty salaries found in the publications of the American Association of University Professors. The latest published issue of the Analytic Report covers the academic year 1961-62. Table 3 presents comparisons of average salaries of teaching faculty and of librarians in four-year liberal arts colleges for that year. In private liberal arts colleges, only the chief librarian earned more on the average than faculty members holding the lowest teaching rank (instructor) in the same colleges. In public colleges chief librarians averaged over $2,000 less than full professors; the other categories of librarians fell between instructors and assistant professors in average salaries. All categories of librarians in public colleges fared better than their counterparts in private colleges, but in both private and public colleges the salary scales for librarians were well below those for teaching faculty.

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[16] Branscomb, Louis C. "The Quest for Faculty Rank." The Status of American College and University Librarians. Chicago: American Library Association, 1958.

Table 3

COMPARISON OF COLLEGE FACULTY AND COLLEGE LIBRARIANS' SALARIES, 1961-62

	Average 9-Month Salaries in Liberal Arts Colleges for Academic Instruction Staff* -- 1961-62			Mean 9-10 Months Salaries Liberal Arts College Libraries** Sept. 1, 1962	
Academic Rank	Public	Private	Position	Public	Private
Professional	10,118	9,953	Chief librarian or director	7,923	5,828
Associate	8,228	7,809	Associate or asst. librarian	5,455	4,772
Assistant	7,047	6,549	Department or division head	6,485	4,983
Instructor	5,792	5,521	Other professional assistants	5,851	4,457

*Baumol, William J. and Heim, Peggy. "The Economic Status of the Profession, 1961-62." AAUP Bulletin, June, 1962. p. 132.

**Samore, Theodore. Library Statistics of Colleges and Universities, 1961-62, Analytic Report. Washington, D.C.: U. S. Office of Education, 1964. p. 51.

The percentage of total academic library operating expenses allocated for library salaries is decreasing. The Standards for College Libraries notes that good college libraries generally spend at least twice as much for salaries as for books. This two-to-one ratio prevailed for academic libraries in the aggregate from 1959-60 through 1962-63, when the proportion began to shift.[17] Wages and salaries as a percentage of total operating expenses dropped from 61.3% in 1959-60 (expenditures for books and other library materials amounted to 29.7% of total expenditures) to 56.3% in 1965-66 (expenditures for books and other materials had risen to 34.2% of the total).

Professional salaries in college libraries need to be improved if the kinds and calibre of personnel needed are to be recruited. Specialists with advanced training in arts or humanities, in engineering, in sciences or in languages who wish to contribute to improved teaching in their fields by becoming librarians have less incentive to do so if they know it entails penalties in terms of salary.

COLLEGE LIBRARY MATERIALS

College libraries are dealing with more different kinds of materials today than ever before. More motion picture films suitable for use in instruction are available now than in former years, and they are often of better quality. Their use is increasing, especially at the junior college level. The use of audio tape has spread from foreign language laboratories into other subject areas. Video tape equipment is becoming more generally available, more compact in size and lower in cost. While only a small percentage of colleges presently uses video tape, it is a development which holds great promise for the future. Programmed materials for use with computerized instructional aids are also only beginning to be employed but it seems likely that college libraries will be called on to deal with them more and more. College library collections of microfilm and microfiche are growing. College libraries are dealing more heavily with government documents, photocopied materials, disc recordings, slides and transparencies for use with overhead projectors.

College Library Materials Budgets

A report of a committee on development of the California state colleges provides a discussion of the way in which college libraries apportion their budgets for library materials. While the discussion and the budget percentages as shown in Table 4 on the following page are intended to apply specifically to the libraries in the California state colleges, they have considerable relevance to all college libraries.

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[17] American Library Association. Library Statistics of Colleges and Universities, 1965-66, Institutional Data. Chicago: ALA, 1967.

"The differences in the type of materials acquired in academic libraries as opposed to public libraries indicate that book funds are much more widely dispersed in the academic library. The public library spends the bulk of its funds on current trade books and many copies of a single title. The academic library generally buys single titles and rarely duplicates copies. A fraction of the total book funds in academic libraries is spent on current trade books; the bulk of the funds goes for older, often out-of-print materials, journals and serials."[18]

Table 4

TYPES OF PUBLICATIONS ACQUIRED ANNUALLY
IN A LARGE STATE COLLEGE LIBRARY

Type of Material	% of Budget
Current books	25
Retrospective Materials	25
Periodical & Serial Backfile	15
Continuations	10
Reference Materials	4
Current Periodicals	12
Non-Book Materials	4
Tax & Transportation Charges	5

Source: Committee on Library Development for the California State Colleges, Recommendations for the Support of California State College Libraries, The Committee, April 1966, p. 25.

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[18] Committee on Library Development for the California State Colleges. Recommendations for the Support of California State College Libraries. The Committee, April 1966. p. 25.

The College Library Book Collection

Despite the increasing use of newer forms of materials, the college library's basic resource continues to be the printed book. Answers to questions concerning the size of the book collection and the kinds of books it ought to include are complex. College librarians, professors, and administrators have worked at these problems for many decades.

Building a college library book collection which meets the needs of the college is a demanding process which generally takes years of time, a great deal of money and considerable judgment on the parts of college librarians, teachers and administrators. Moreover, the size of the collection - the total volume count - is not necessarily a good index of its value or usefulness. More important than total collection size is the need to have the right books, and to have enough of them. The "right" books are the books that supplement and reinforce text material, those needed as research resources and the books that supply general reading for students and faculty. Generally speaking, the college library approaches its goal - the right books in appropriate quantities - only after years of cooperation between departments of the college and the library on book selection.

The question of collection size is discussed more fully in the section on college library standards in Chapter 4.

While junior college libraries face many of the same problems faced by four-year institutions in building book collections, they have some special problems of their own. Adequate materials do not exist to support some technical and vocational programs in the curriculum. Furthermore, relatively rapid changes in the curriculum may take place as the junior college attempts to adapt to the needs of the community it serves. These problems compound the difficulties associated with the building of a collection which is responsive to current curricular needs.

The Use of Audio-Visual Materials in Two-Year and Four-Year Colleges

A conference at Columbia University in 1966 took up the question of audio-visual and printed materials in instruction at both school and college levels. A conference participant made the following general statement about the extent of audio-visual materials use:

> "Although very little research has been conducted to determine the extent to which audio-visual materials are used for instructional purposes, it is apparent to anyone associated with the educational establishment that audio-visual materials are widely employed in teaching. It is

> also apparent that this use is more extensive in the lower educational levels than in the higher and that the materials are used largely as channels for the one-way transmission of factual information than as resources for individual learners or for the accomplishment of a large range of educational objectives."[19]

Another conference participant had this to say about the use of audio-visual materials by college students:

> "No surveys can be found that indicate how much audio-visual materials are being used by college students, nor is there an easy way to arrive at even a guess as to the amount of the use of visual materials on a college campus. There has been millions of dollars worth of research on the potential of audio-visual materials, but there seems to be no research on their actual use.
>
> "Purdue University (1965) has a unique program of providing students with tapes, films, filmstrips, records, and audio-visual devices for their individual use, or for group use if the students so desire. Last year 65,000 such items were borrowed by the students: 80% tapes, 14% motion picture films, and 6% other. Granted that a major portion of the use is for tapes, including foreign language tapes, the number of loans is significant. Perhaps other libraries would show similar non-book use if they provided the necessary facilities... We know more about the effect and the effective use of audio-visual materials than we know about print, but we know more about the extent of the use of print by the college students than we do about the extent of audio-visual use. The implications for future research are obvious."[20]

While relatively little information about the use of audio-visual materials at the college level exists, it is probably safe to say that non-print materials are used more heavily at the elementary and secondary school levels than in colleges, and that they are used more heavily in junior colleges than in four-year colleges or in universities.

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[19] Allen, William H. "The Use of Printed and Audio-Visual Material for Instructional Purposes: Audio-Visual Materials." Conference on the Use of Printed and Audio-Visual Materials for Instructional Purposes. M. F. Tauber and Irlene R. Stevens, editors. New York: Columbia University School of Library Service, February 1966.

[20] Chapin, Richard E. "Use of Printed and Audio-Visual Materials for Educational Purposes by College and University Students." Conference on the Use of Printed and Audio-Visual Materials for Instructional Purposes. M. F. Tauber and Irlene R. Stevens, editors. New York: Columbia University School of Library Service, February 1966.

The junior college libraries section of ACRL recently undertook a survey of audio-visual programs in American two-year college libraries. Responses to the survey questionnaire were received from 185 libraries, or about 23% of the libraries in the 830 two-year colleges in the United States. Some of the more important findings of this survey were that:

- 58% of the responding libraries administered audio-visual programs
- 31% of the responding libraries owned films
- 56% of the responding libraries had a central disc library
- 52% of the responding libraries had audio tape collections
- 30% of the libraries had a tape duplicating service
- 52% of the libraries had listening carrels or stations
- 17% of the libraries had closed circuit television
- 14% of the libraries operated a photographic section, and 14% operated a graphics printing section

In June 1967, the Audio-Visual Committee of ACRL prepared a preliminary draft of a set of guidelines for the use of audio-visual materials in academic libraries.[21] These touch on the planning of audio-visual programs and the types of materials and equipment to be used in such programs; the requirements for budget, personnel and facilities; the services to be provided; the selection, acquisition and cataloging of materials; and, the organization and maintenance of collections. Although the guidelines are as yet preliminary, it is clear that they stress the unique contributions to instruction which can be made by audio-visual materials and the fact that "the academic library has the responsibility of supplying students and faculty with needed resource materials regardless of format."

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[21] Audio-Visual Committee, ACRL. Guidelines to the Use of Audio-Visual Materials in Academic Libraries, June 1967 (preliminary draft).

Centralized and Decentralized Collections

The question of centralized versus decentralized (departmental) collections has been debated for many years. A number of efficiencies and educational advantages are inherent in centralizing at least the main college library collections. They are almost always centralized today. Certainly, in very large colleges (or in universities) certain specialized collections such as art and architecture or engineering may be split off from the main collections and housed separately. Some colleges may take steps in the next few years to re-establish departmental collections in the physical and/or life sciences as information networks employing machine methods of bibliographic control and electronic communications media come into wider use.

TECHNOLOGY AND TECHNICAL PROCESSES

Machine technology has had an impact on college libraries in several areas, and there is promise of much greater impact to come. Some of the techniques discussed in this section have been employed in college libraries for a number of years, while others are just coming into use. Some are not yet operational while still others are economically feasible only in the largest college libraries, or in the libraries of colleges which are part of coordinated college systems. This follows from the fact that the use of data processing equipment often cannot be economically justified where there isn't a high volume of work. Even though improved service to library users may result from a machine application, such improvements are generally thought of as by-products of a system which must find its primary justification in the reduction of current costs.

New applications are being found for machines in circulation control and in technical processes including acquisitions, serials control and the production of catalog copy. New communications techniques are likely to affect college library operations and it seems likely that machine applications in bibliographic and information retrieval will eventually apply to the activities of college libraries.

Machine Applications in the Technical Processes

At the Chicago Undergraduate Division of the University of Illinois, a system is being studied which would tie acquisitions and certain aspects of cataloging into one integrated system. The bibliographic data which is obtained and verified at the beginning of the book ordering cycle is entered into a computer. This information is manipulated by the computer for the production of computer purchase orders, in-process lists, financial records, book cards, and book catalogs. The one-time verification of data at the beginning of the process eliminates all of the subsequent checking common to manual systems. This system is not unique but is representative of a kind of system which can now be found in a number of academic libraries.

At present, 16 libraries throughout the country are receiving weekly machine readable tapes from the Library of Congress containing catalog data for current English language materials. This experiment is part of the effort to automate procedures at the Library of Congress. It is hoped that these tapes will be useful components of local automated systems. Current expectations are that by July of 1968 these tapes will be available to all libraries on a sale basis. Thus, college libraries with access to a computer facility will be able to avail themselves of a much improved means of obtaining Library of Congress catalog copy.

Serials control has long been a problem for the college library because of the great variety of serials most subscribe to, their diversity and frequency of issue. If economically feasible, the serials control process can now be considerably improved through the use of data processing equipment. The acquisition time for missed issues and processing time for new subscriptions, bindery procedures and information regarding receipt of current subscriptions are all expedited. In addition, automated serials control provides for the listing of serial holdings in a great variety of arrangements. For example, subject listings of periodicals holdings can be sent to academic departments and to faculty members, thereby reducing the need for telephone inquiries regarding holdings.

Circulation Control

Circulation control is another function which is being automated in some college libraries. The Binghamton, New York State College uses an IBM 1460 computer housed in an all-campus data processing center. In addition to keeping an up-dated file of books on loan,the computer prints overdue notices and lists of borrowers and loaned materials. Other by-products of such computerized circulation systems are the processing of hold requests and the production of statistical records.

The speed and simplicity of the book borrowing and returning transactions, the reduction of filing errors and mis-sent overdue notices, the availability of a list of borrowed materials and the simplification of the clearance of graduating students are among the improvements in library service that can be associated with automated circulation control. The possibilities for research and for better management of the library's role in the educational process which an automated system provides are discussed in Chapter 3.

Finally, it should be noted that a processing system under development at at least one university library links the automated circulation control system to the system for acquisitions and the production of catalog copy.

Application of New Techniques to Interlibrary Communication

The consensus of academic librarians seems to be that only materials which are used fairly frequently should be stored locally, in any form - whether in their original format or in reproduction of one kind or another. Less frequently used material should be stored in centralized locations, and cooperative arrangements among libraries should be established for their use. A premium is therefore placed on the ability to communicate the need for such material, to relay information about its availability and to transmit the materials themselves.

Techniques in the field of reprography have undergone extensive development in the last few years, and machines have been developed for the transmission of page copy in facsimile over long distances. Experimentation with these new machines and techniques is now underway in different parts of the country and will be highly pertinent to the future development of more sophisticated interloan networks.

Bibliographic Searching and Information Retrieval

Two other machine applications hold extraordinary promise for the future of academic libraries, but both entail substantial technical difficulties. The first of these involves storing the information now contained in card or book catalogs in computer memory for computer catalog searching; the second involves the storing of the textual contents of materials. Each of these applications has been employed on only a limited basis thus far.

It is technically feasible at the present time to translate bibliographic information into machine readable form and to store it in computer memory. The process is still expensive, but perfectly within the realm of possibility. Automatic searching of the catalog for information retrieval is quite another matter, however. Much better indexing methods will have to be developed to support such programs.

For most college libraries, implementing machine applications to bibliographic searching and/or to information storage and retrieval is not an immediate prospect. Much of the information handled by libraries in liberal arts colleges - materials in humanities and social sciences - is in fact highly complex and does not readily lend itself to machine handling techniques in their present state of development.

THE COPYRIGHT PROBLEM: THE FAIR USE DOCTRINE

As new techniques for the duplication, storage, retrieval and presentation of instructional materials come into more widespread use, there is a possibility that copyright restrictions will inhibit teachers and librarians from providing students with access to the wide range of available materials. Copyright law now provides for the "fair use" of copyrighted material, and educational uses have generally been considered fair use. If the new methods for providing access to materials involve injustices to authors and publishers, then new plans for their compensation will have to be devised. Any such plans should not place undue restrictions on the educational use of materials, nor should they place undue burdens of cost on colleges or libraries.

COLLEGE LIBRARY BUILDINGS AND EQUIPMENT

The boom in the building of academic libraries in the United States has been underway for several years. Alvin Toffler, writing on academic libraries quotes U. S. Office of Education figures to the effect that, between 1960 and 1961 "sixty-nine new campus libraries sprang up at a cost of $38,650,000. At the end of the 5-year period, 1961-1965, fully 504 more libraries will come into being on college or university campuses at a cost of approximately $466,600,000. This means we are spending an annual average of over $93,000,000 on these new buildings designed to bring book and scholar together. These impressive figures do not include the costs of the books themselves, of salaries, or operating expenses."[22]

With the help of substantial funding made available under Title I of the Higher Education Facilities Act, there is every prospect that the volume of academic library building in the 1966-1970 period will be even greater than that of the 1961-1965 period, in terms both of number of buildings and of total cost of construction.

With such a massive program of construction underway nationwide, college librarians and others responsible for planning academic library buildings have expressed concern over whether or not the facilities they plan and build today will be able to accommodate the library service needs in years to come. The application of modern technology to library activities is in a state of rapid change. In addition to the need to plan buildings which will accommodate that technological change, many other factors must be taken into account in order to design buildings which are well suited to today's requirements.

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[22] Toffler, Alvin. "Libraries." Bricks and Mortarboards. New York: Educational Facilities Laboratories, 1964.

A basic difference among academic libraries serving different institutional levels is the ratio between space provided for storage of materials and space provided for reader accommodations. The library facility planned for a graduate school will, in general, provide a greater amount of space for storage of materials relative to space provided for reader accommodations than will a library planned for an undergraduate or junior college. The graduate and undergraduate libraries on a major university campus will usually be distinguished from each other by, among other things, a difference in this ratio.

The Increased Need for College Library Space

The total need for college library space in the United States has increased sharply in the last few years, and this trend is expected to continue. The basic reason is that larger numbers of students have to be accommodated, and even more will have to be accommodated in the future, though the rate of increase may not be as rapid as that of the early 1960's. A secondary reason is that students seem to be spending a larger proportion of their time in the library, perhaps because they are under more pressure to make high grades, because their curricular programs call for more independent study and hence more use of library resources, or because they are making greater use of microfilm readers and other equipment which require that materials be used in the library. As more equipment is provided for library users, the total amount of space required per reader increases. Finally, collections are growing in almost every college library, and microform technology has not been applied extensively enough as yet to reverse or even to substantially slow down the expanding need for materials storage space.

Keyes D. Metcalf argues that collections in academic libraries will continue to grow in spite of the increased use of reproduction and of interlibrary borrowing. Most academic library collections have grown at the rate of 4% or 5% per year, doubling in size in 16 or 17 years; libraries in rapidly developing institutions have grown faster, those in "mature" institutions more slowly. To allow for the effects of this growth, Metcalf recommends that new library buildings be built to accommodate collections at least twice the size of the collection at the time the library is built.[23]

The Kind of Space Needed

In response to the uncertainties of future requirements, architects and planners responsible for academic library buildings have for some years constructed modular, flexible buildings which can be expanded or adapted to changing space requirements with relative ease.

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[23] Metcalf, Keyes D. Planning Academic and Research Library Buildings. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1965.

There are certain characteristics which distinguish a flexible library:

> "As large a percentage of the floor space as possible should be usable for any of the primary functions of the library: reader accommodations, service to readers, space for staff activities, and housing for the collection. It follows that:
>
> "1. Atmospheric and other comfort conditions such as ventilation and lighting, must be suitable for any of these purposes.
>
> "2. Floors must be capable of bearing loads up to 150 lbs. per square foot, which is the bookstack requirement, in all areas of the building.
>
> "3. Floor heights must be adequate for any of these purposes, preferably not less than 8 feet 4 inches.
>
> "4. All library areas must be readily accessible; it is undesirable to have load bearing interior walls in places where they might interfere with traffic patterns later.
>
> "5. Interior arrangements must not seriously interfere with satisfactory capacity for books, for readers, and for shelving."[24]

An academic library building will have a longer useful life if it is expandable; it should be planned "in such a way that later additions can be made without undue expense for alterations and rearrangements and without damaging it functionally or aesthetically. This can be accomplished only by providing for these conditions in the basic plan adopted."[25]

The Building Program for the College Library Building

Metcalf stresses the importance of drawing up a building program as part of the process of planning the college library building. The building program is a document which specifies, in detail, the size of the projected building, the uses to which spaces in the building are to be put and the amount of space to be used for each purpose. The building program is of particular importance because it requires the chief librarian, his staff and the institution's administration to review the essential needs of the library; because it affords the librarian an opportunity to obtain formal approval of these needs and the methods to be used in meeting them; and, because it provides the basis on which the architect can plan a satisfactory building.

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[24] Ibid.

[25] Ibid.

Furniture and Equipment

Specifications for furniture and equipment should be considered at the time the building is planned, as these items are integral parts of a new library building. Furniture and equipment provide accommodations for readers and housing for collections; in a modern library building with large unpartitioned areas, furniture is often used to set off the divisions of space and to create the atmosphere that surrounds readers. Furniture should fit properly into the module[26] chosen for the building and should meet a number of other functional and aesthetic requirements having to do with durability, comfort and appearance. Consideration of these matters early in the building planning stage aids timely delivery of furniture and equipment and tends to insure that these items are sufficient to the library's requirements.

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[26] The rectangular unit of floor space defined by a structural column at each of the corners, into which a modular building is divided.

Chapter 3

RESEARCH AND EXPERIMENTATION IN COLLEGE LIBRARY SERVICES

Some of the more important areas in which research in college library services has taken place are:

- investigation of the uses students and faculty actually make of library resources and services;
- investigation of the correlation between actual library use by students and academic performance;
- investigation of the correlation between expertise in library use (as measured by library use or familiarity tests) and academic performance;
- descriptive research on the development of college library resources within a college system, a geographical region, or the nation; descriptive research on the extensiveness of cooperation; descriptive research on the operation of automated record-keeping systems, etc.; and,
- investigation of librarian, student, faculty and administrator attitudes toward college library service.

Experimentation in college library service has been both large-scale, as exemplified by the Monteith College library experiment, and small-scale, including individual experimentation with innovative materials, services, equipment and/or procedures.

This chapter provides a brief discussion of research and experimentation into the function and use of the academic library.

RESEARCH ON COLLEGE LIBRARY USE AND ON THE EFFECTS OF LIBRARY USE

Measuring library use and the effects of library use on the academic performance of students have been major concerns of college librarians for many years. Substantial progress in the development of techniques for such investigations was made at the University of Chicago in the 1930's. However, the accurate measurement of the use of the college library still faces certain basic obstacles.

> "In their efforts to indicate the volume of library use, librarians have traditionally reported such statistics as: books loaned for home use, number of reference questions asked, and number of interlibrary loans transacted. In recent years especially, these data have appeared less and less meaningful as true measures of library use and usefulness. It is clear, for example, that a book lent to a student and unopened by him cannot be regarded as having the same importance as a book borrowed by another reader who bases a major paper on it. Furthermore, the journal article, not charged out, but read within the library building (perhaps even in the bookstacks) may contribute in a major way to furthering an important research project.
>
> "Thus, the usefulness of a library cannot be measured properly by simple statistics of loans of two weeks.
>
> "If open stack browsing is a valid 'service' in a library, why not count browsers? Or time the duration of their browsing? If access to an array of learned journals is offered, why not measure in some way the reader hours spent examining such journals."[27]

Quite naturally, data processing equipment provides more timely, more complete and more easily manipulable information for purposes of measuring library use than would otherwise be available. The abstract of a research study published in March 1967 reads as follows:

> "In February 1965 Oakland University Library implemented a circulation control system utilizing IBM 357 data collection units with a 1620 computer equipped with disc storage. An initial test run of analytic by-products of the system shows implications for more efficient library administration and further defines the library's function in the educational process."[28]

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[27] Esterquest, Ralph P. "Measuring Library Use" and "Research into University Library Problems." College and Research Libraries, May 1963.

[28] Cammack, Floyd and Mann, Donald. "Institutional Implications of an Automated Circulation Study." College and Research Libraries, March 1967. p. 129.

The analytic by-products of Oakland University's automated circulation control system included answers to such questions as:

> "question: Which portions of the library collections are used most heavily, and which are used least?
>
> "answer: A breakdown by LC classification letters showed English literature, history, philosophy, education, and economics topping the list in that order. The lowest significant use areas involved mathematics and the physical sciences, the totality of which did not equal use in English literature alone.
>
> "Such an answer might well raise subsidiary questions concerning adequacy of the collection for student use, library orientation for science students, comparative figures for similar institutions, the numerical relations of science majors to other majors, and perhaps the science faculty's awareness of the library's resources together with the whole question of departmental goals and budget allocation.
>
> "question: Students in which subjects seem to be the heaviest library users, and does this correlate as expected with the answer to the immediately preceding question?
>
> "answer: Secondary education majors in foreign languages and English head the list for average number of charges per person, followed closely by liberal arts majors in the same fields. Similarly high averages support history and philosophy use patterns mentioned above. Majors in physical and biological science average below the mean, but again with their secondary education counterparts somewhat more active than students in the College of Arts and Sciences.
>
> "The suggested implications of these tabulations would appear to be that students tend to read largely within their own fields of study...and that, at Oakland at any rate, students planning teaching careers use the library more than arts and sciences students with the same subject specialization.
>
> "question: Do upper classmen tend to use the library more than lower classmen?

> "_answer_: Decidedly yes. Of those who use the library ...juniors and seniors averaged almost twice the number of charges for freshmen and sophomores...The freshman year would appear to be a 'non-library' year, in at least a portion of which only 10% of the class found it necessary to check out a library book. By the sophomore year, the number has increased sharply and by the junior year, apparently almost all students are library borrowers.
>
> "With an overall library non-use figure of 42% during the test period, it appears likely that freshmen are the odd men out. Unless their 'in-house' use of library facilities is considerably larger than other indications would imply, major attention should be focused on the library's relation with lower classmen.
>
> "_question_: What is the relationship between library use and academic achievement?
>
> "_answer_: Extremely close...even a limited body of data shows a direct, positive correlation between the borrowing of library materials and cumulative grade-point average...the GPA of students who borrowed at least one book during the time was 2.73, while that of students who borrowed no books...was 2.54."[29]

The general implications of this analysis of library use by undergraduates were summarized as follows:

> "Sidestepping for the moment any discussion of causal relationships between academic achievement and library use, the library's position (if not function) within the undergraduate educational process would appear, simply on the basis of circulation figures, to be demonstrably significant. When this correlation is viewed in connection with freshman and sophomore use patterns, perhaps academic librarians (at least at Oakland) should set out to 'recruit' users in their first two years of college work...
>
> "As the store of transaction data continues to increase as a by-product of the circulation system, it will soon reach the point at which reliable answers can be found to a number of additional questions. The ability to identify non-borrowers quickly and accurately should

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[29] _Ibid_.

> provide useful information for academic advisors. The borrowing record for commuters, dormitory students, students in specific courses, part-time students, and faculty members are within easy access...while most manual circulation systems generate the same type of data, machine readable data allow easy and rapid tabulation at a fraction (estimated at one-fifth) of the cost of the same information developed manually. Initial faculty and administrative reaction to the availability of this type of information has very quickly answered the question, "who cares?" Requests for special runs have ranged from the professor who asked for periodic "traffic reports" on his assigned reading lists to a department chairman who expressed a near unethical degree of interest in the reading habits of his faculty members in connection with promotion decisions."[30]

Most research of this type suffers certain common problems, and different studies have produced contradictory findings on some points. Since these studies are generally conducted in a single institution, their findings are frequently not comparable because one college's particular teaching approaches may emphasize library use more than another's. Furthermore, there are instances in which other library facilities or private book collections are used by students and this fact affects the results of such inquiries.

An earlier study of the use of the library was conducted by Guy R. Lyle in April 1961.[31] The Lyle study was a one-day check of library use in 15 colleges and universities. A simple one-page questionnaire was handed to persons as they entered the library and picked up as they left the building. Three questions were asked. The first dealt with the user's reasons for coming to the library. The second question asked the user to identify and enumerate materials he had used inside the library. The third question checked the respondent's status (freshman, sophomore, graduate student, faculty, staff member, etc.).

According to Lyle:

> "a 'spot census,' covering even as brief a period as one day, provides a statistical basis for generalizing about total library use that is lacking in existing

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[30] Ibid.

[31] Lyle, Guy R. "Use and Misuse of the College Library." The President, The Professor, and The College Library. New York: The H. W. Wilson Company, 1963. p. 51-57.

> statistics. Such a census can throw light on the reasons why students come to the library and the number who come and from what classes. It can tell something, though not with complete accuracy, about the number of publications used within the library. And it can dispell our ignorance regarding the kinds and variety of materials which students use when they come to the library."[32]

The primary conclusions drawn from the Lyle study were as follows:

> "The one-day study confirms what all of us have long taken for granted, namely, that the outside or home use of library materials is only a part of library use. It showed that for every book taken outside the library for home use, and this includes overnight reserve books, there are four library items used within the building...One must add that the materials taken out of the library are usually books; the materials used within the library embrace the total library resources and may include a book, a record, a document, a periodical, or a newspaper.
>
> "Approximately 8,500 students used the libraries, some more than once during the day the check was made. This figures out to one user to every three students enrolled in the colleges...In proportion to their enrollment...more juniors and seniors use the library than freshman and sophomores. Several librarians were surprised by the number of students who were repeaters during the one-day study. In one library, for example, approximately a third of the questionnaires returned came from students who had used the library more than once during the day.
>
> "The results of the one-day test show without a shadow of a doubt...that a large majority of those who enter the library go there to study their own textbooks. The respondents to the questionnaires checked this reason three times more frequently than any other. A majority of those who use the library are not working _with_ library materials; they are working _beside_ library materials."[33]

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[32] _Ibid_.

[33] _Ibid_.

These findings were summarized as follows:

> "First, more than 50% of all students using the libraries were using their own textbooks exclusively; 16% were using library materials for independent study.
>
> "Second, one student in three came to the library; juniors and seniors were the heaviest users in proportion to their numbers.
>
> "Third, the number of publications used inside the library was four times greater than the number of books charged out for home use."[34]

One recommendation made as a result of the Lyle study has particular significance.

> "The faculty have the primary responsibility for structuring the academic courses for independent study. Present teaching practices would appear to provide little incentive for students to do substantial and rewarding reading. If professors are wedded to the idea of using textbooks and reserve readings, there is little the librarian can do about making changes. He should, however, continue to exert his influence in working with individual professors to promote independent library use and to this end he should create a library atmosphere conducive to tutorial instruction. For example, he should encourage the discussion of books by providing talking rooms near to reading rooms, make available as many private studies as possible in place of large reading tables, and provide for the most effective display of materials such as government publication sources, maps, manuscripts, and the like. Finally, as a first step in calling attention to the over-dependence of students upon textbook reading, he should make his own 'spot test' of library use and make known to the faculty how the typical student presently meets the instructor's requirements and expectations."[35]

The Monteith College Library Experiment

In 1960, Monteith College - one of the 11 colleges which compose Wayne State University - became the object of an experiment in developing a more vital relationship between the library and college teaching.[36] Monteith College was chosen for the experiment for several reasons. Its inter-disciplinary program, planned and taught by the college staff, aimed at giving the student growing responsibility for the formation of his own ideas over the four years of his college experience. The curriculum had, as one of its main objectives, the development of the student's capacity for independent study. These conditions afforded the opportunity for the project which was conducted over four semesters and two summer sessions between Fall 1960 and Summer 1962. It dealt with three basic factors:

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[34] *Ibid*.

[35] *Ibid*.

- the relationship of the library staff to the teaching faculty;
- the coordination of library instruction with the curriculum; and,
- the role of the library in the educational experience of the student.

The project was concerned with "ways of investigating" these general hypotheses:

> "_If_ librarians participate with faculty in course planning, they can get student library use built into the courses planned, and _if_ student library use is built into courses, students will use the library for these courses, and _if_ students use the library for their courses they will acquire understanding of the library and competence in its use."

Another hypothesis was subordinate:

> "If expert bibliographical assistance is provided to the faculty, the processes hypothesized in the first four will be facilitated."

In the first semester of operation of the experiment the project staff, in cooperation with the social sciences faculty and its planning committees,

> "worked on four assignments which incorporated library experiences for students. They gathered materials, prepared exhibits, wrote briefing statements for distribution

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[36] Knapp, Patricia B. _The Monteith College Library Experiment_. New York: Scarecrow Press, 1966.

> to students, and presented library instruction on a few of the discussion sections. In addition, the staff developed tentative plans for a sequence of library experiences to extend through three years and through three areas of the Monteith curriculum..."

In the second semester of operation the work was expanded to include the natural sciences and the humanistic studies divisions.

> "Project staff members...attended...the course planning meetings...faculties and they carried on the various activities involved in planning and conducting library assignments in all three subject areas."

At the end of the 1961 spring term

> "a random sample of 21 Monteith students was hired to spend two days in the library in connection with an intensive examination of library behavior and factors which might be related to it. The students were given a series of specially prepared library performance tests and certain other mental and projective tests. Questionnaires and interviews were used to provide information on their backgrounds and their experiences with the library program.
>
> "Data from this small study contributed to revisions in the program for the Fall semester, but most of these changes resulted from the project staff's careful review of all aspects of the first year's operation of the program.
>
> "In curriculum planning, the project staff dropped the attempt to meet regularly with all three divisional faculties, working instead with one representative from each. The bibliographical assistance program was reorganized by the creation of a pool of assistants who were on call for specific tasks rather than assigned individually to instructors. The sequence of student library experiences was revised by the development of new assignments and of new procedures for implementing them."

In the Spring and Summer, 1962,

> "two assignments planned in the previous semester were implemented...but all of the operational activities terminated as the project staff turned its attention to analysis of the data which had been gathered."

Out of the Monteith experiment grew a program which consists of a sequence of library assignments extending through the four-year curriculum and covering the three subject areas (science of society, natural science, and humanistic studies) taught in the college. A theory was developed which views the library experience as a coherent unity, as the bibliographic organization of scholarship. The program is designed to enable the student to learn to use a system of "ways" to get information, to learn how to retrieve information and ideas from a highly complex system of stored records. The student learns to find a path, given his resources and his purpose; he has to use a method which is suitable to the library as a collection of organized subjects as well as to scholarship as an organization based on an academic discipline.

To lead the student to this knowledge and skill, a sequence of assignments was constructed around the library as a system of "ways" moving from one level of organization to another, from one subject field to another, always aiming at the growth of the student's capacity to study independently. The first assignment (the "Independence Assignment") demonstrated the pluralism of "ways" to get answers to questions from the card catalog, the Oxford English Dictionary, the International Index, the Reader's Guide, the Syntopicon. A preliminary and rapid appraisal of ten books (the "Book Evaluation Assignment") used the "way" of open shelves. A paper predicting economic growth of one country (the "Economic Index Assignment") required the use of sources of data and social sciences. At the end of the four-year sequence, the student was required to produce a bibliographic review of the literature on the topic of his senior essay.

The Monteith experiment represents a serious attempt, perhaps the most significant at any college to date, to integrate library use with the program of instruction. The sequence of library assignments in an integrated library program of this type is intended to support and complement the goals and theories of the college and of the curriculum. To faculty members and students alike the library must be presented as a highly complex system of ways to find and use resources, related to a coherent framework, and calling for problem solving behavior and critical thinking.

THE "LIBRARY COLLEGE" IDEA

American colleges and universities face difficult problems of size in attempting to provide higher education for an increasing percentage of the college-age population. Some institutions have begun to adapt certain aspects of the British university, particularly the division into small colleges and the tutorial system. By providing a wide range of resources and by stressing "integrated" or "inter-disciplinary" programs, they try to counter the drive towards the education of specialists. In experimental colleges, specialized programs (called independent study, tutorial instruction, honors reading, or by some similar name) attempt to free the student from the traditional pattern of passive attendance at large "discussion" sessions and lead him to independence in learning.

Proposals for the "library college" appear in many variations, but common to them all is the presence of a quantity and quality of library resources which would be drawn on by a community of students and bibliographically expert teachers. The usual pattern of mandatory attendance at class meetings and lectures, mandatory textbook assignments and voluntary additional reading in the library would, in a sense, be reversed. Library reading (or use of other library materials) would be the basic element in the student's independent pursuit of knowledge and discussion meetings would be optional - that is, the student would be free to request a session with a tutor or preceptor when he felt his work required it. Each student would move at his own pace and, to some extent, in his own direction. Each student would face comprehensive examinations in different areas and would be required to produce papers at frequent intervals.

Elements of this idea can be found in the present or planned programs of instruction in a number of American colleges and universities. These developments point to increased emphasis on independent study centered around the library as the integrating core of the college.

Chapter 4

PLANNING AND ADMINISTERING COLLEGE LIBRARY SERVICES

Higher education in the United States is characterized by a considerable degree of institutional autonomy. Colleges and universities, both public and private, are largely free to develop their educational programs as they will. This produces considerable variation in the character and quality of instructional programs. Thus, it cannot be said that "planning" of higher educational programs on a national basis occurs at all. The practice of accreditation which is peculiar to this country, however, does simulate a national "planning" function in that it provides for periodic internal and external review of an institution's programs.

In like fashion, the formulation of national standards for college library service fosters national "planning." To the extent that they are accepted, such standards shape the qualitative and quantitative characteristics of library programs in colleges across the country. This chapter provides a discussion of college library standards and of the attitudes of the regional accrediting associations regarding them. It also covers the administration of library services within the college, the instruction of students in the use of the library, the relationship of the college library to other libraries and to the non-college public, and the financing of college library services.

COLLEGE LIBRARY STANDARDS

Since the role the college library ought to play in the instructional program of the parent institution differs from college to college, it is difficult to postulate in general terms what the college library ought to be and what it ought to do. Nevertheless, academic administrators need certain guidelines for making decisions about their college's library programs. Librarians themselves frequently feel the need to rely on the judgments of their professional colleagues in determining the priorities that should govern the development of good library programs. Budgeting and appropriating authorities in both public and private colleges need realistic guidance in their efforts to balance the competing claims for funds from the library and other college departments.

Efforts to provide the kinds of guidelines which are needed have resulted in the publication of national standards for two-year and four-year college libraries by the Association of College and Research Libraries, a division of the American Library Association; in a set of guidelines for library services to extension students, also prepared by ACRL; and, in the six regional accrediting associations' positions on library programs.

The Nature of the ALA Standards for Libraries in Four-Year Colleges

The ALA standards document[37] is distinguished by its relative brevity and simplicity. It is divided into eight short sections.

The first section, on the functions of the college library, depicts the college library as the most important intellectual resource of the academic community, formed by the aims and the needs of the institution of which it is a part, charged with support of the instructional program and fit to meet the legitimate demands of all its patrons, from freshman to senior professor.

The second section, on structure and government, discusses briefly the work of several committees: a board of control committee on the library dealing with general library policy; a faculty library committee as an advisory body; and, a student committee on the library to provide liaison with the student body. The chief librarian should work closely with these committees as well as with the college president to whom he should be directly responsible, and with the head or dean of the academic program. The planning and administration of the library budget should be under the control of the librarian.

The third section deals specifically with the library budget. Despite the variety of factors which influence the budgetary needs of the library (size of faculty and student body, prevailing methods of instruction, etc.), the library budget should represent a minimum of 5% of the college's total budget for educational and general purposes. The percentage must be higher if the library's holdings are seriously deficient, or if there is a rapid expansion of the student body or of course offerings. Experience shows that a good college library spends at least twice as much for salaries as it does for books.

Section four deals with staff requirements. A professional librarian is defined as one holding a graduate library degree. Three professional librarians (one to fill the post of chief librarian, one responsible for reader's services, and one responsible for technical processes) are regarded as the minimum number for effective service. These key staff members should be assisted by an additional professional staff and a nonprofessional staff, the sizes of which depend on the needs of the institution. Library staffing formulas developed by two states (California and New York) are presented as illustrations of reasonable formulas. Faculty status and benefits equivalent to those enjoyed by teaching staff are advocated for all professional librarians. With a view toward eliminating any possible gap between library and classroom, it is advocated that library staff take an active part in the college instructional program, as well as in informal instruction in the use of the library and provision of bibliographic advice to faculty members.

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[37] Association of College and Research Libraries. "Standards for College Libraries." College and Research Libraries, July 1959, pp. 274-80.

The fifth section treats the library collections. The collection of books and periodicals must provide all material for undergraduate students which the curriculum requires. It must provide properly for the demands of graduate students in all fields in which the college offers a master's degree, and it should help the faculty to maintain a high standard of scholarship. It should contain the standard books of human culture and civilization, a wide variety of periodicals and newspapers, and a strong reference collection not restricted to the subjects which form the curriculum nor to publications in the English language. Unnecessary duplication of titles should be avoided in favor of increasing the extensiveness of the collections. The librarian must have uncensored right to select books and other materials representing all sides of controversial issues. Five major factors determine the size of the library collection: (1) the extent and the nature of the curriculum, (2) the number and character of graduate programs, (3) the methods of instruction, (4) the size of the undergraduate and graduate student body, both full-time and extension, and (5) the need of the faculty for more advanced material (if no research library is available nearby). The effective minimum collection size lies at 50,000 carefully chosen volumes. Steady growth is necessary, but growth may be permitted to slow down when the number of volumes reaches 300,000. Collection size generally grows as student body size increases, and the following measure is offered as a guide: Up to 600 students, 50,000 volumes; for every additional 200 students, 10,000 volumes. Enrollment of part-time and extension students should be translated into full-time equivalent enrollment for this purpose. The main library catalog should be a union catalog for all collections and should follow the Library of Congress and ALA cataloging codes as standards. Audio-visual programs should be an integral part of the library's functions if the library handles such programs.

Section six, on library buildings, points out that the library buildings must be shaped by the character of the institution - the residential college will have different building requirements from the college which serves commuters only. The seating capacity of a new building should be based on the anticipated growth of the college over a 20-year period, and accommodations must be provided for at least 1/3 of the student body in a variety of kinds of seating and allowing a table space of at least 3 x 2 feet per reader.

Section seven, on the quality and evaluation of library services, stresses the importance of assessing the qualities of a library and its service, while acknowledging the difficulty of doing so. A number of statistical measures may be helpful in assessing the quality of the service. The effectiveness of instruction in the use of the library given to students by library staff will be reflected in how well students avail themselves of library resources. Cooperation of library staff and teaching faculty in evaluating library resources and services is an approach which should lead to closer ties between classroom and library.

The eighth and final section of the standards document deals with interlibrary cooperation. The college library should take advantage of opportunities to cooperate with other college, university, school and public libraries (at a level above the provision of basic materials for college programs) in order to avoid unnecessary duplication of materials in a geographic area and to increase the resources available to each cooperating library.

The avowed purpose of the standards for libraries in four-year colleges is to "provide a guide for the evaluation of libraries in the American colleges and universities which emphasize four-year undergraduate instruction and may or may not have graduate programs leading to a Master's degree". The standards are not intended to be applicable to junior colleges or to the libraries of academic institutions which stress advanced research. No attempt is made to distinguish among liberal arts colleges, teachers colleges and undergraduate colleges which stress technology. The document is notable for the general nature of its recommendations and for its restraint in specifying minimum standards for materials, for library staff and for physical facilities. Even allowing for special circumstances - colleges which teach a curriculum heavy in subject areas which require relatively less in the way of library resources - the minimum requirements for 50,000 carefully chosen volumes is probably a reasonable minimum. The standards document places no upper limit on the appropriate size of a library collection in a liberal arts college, although the stipulation that growth can slow down when the collection reaches 300,000 volumes does give a clue as to the number of volumes seen as a practical goal by the framers of the standards. (The largest liberal arts college library in the country, Dartmouth's, had 903,000 volumes in 1964/65.)[38]

Despite the obvious effort of the framers of the standards to provide flexibility and to take a carefully reasoned tone in the matter of minimum and maximum goals for library development, the standards document has been criticized by those who feel that the very existence of minimum standards can hamper efforts to build distinguished library collections and programs. The sort of criticism which the standards have generated is expressed in the proceedings of a symposium on the college library held at Bowdoin College in 1963. "Bowdoin's symposium gave a thorough airing to the problem: What constitutes a college library? even if it did not answer the ... question. Bowdoin felt (and still feels) that the answer does not lie in Procrustena standards and formulae which limit a college library to a fixed, or relatively fixed, size."[39] Clearly, the college library standards must be viewed in terms of their limited relevance to colleges of certain types and/or in certain stages of development.

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[38] Bowker Annual, 1967. p. 31.

The Nature of the ALA Standards for Libraries in Two-Year Colleges

The standards for junior college libraries are very similar in intent to the standards for libraries in four-year colleges. With one exception, they provide essentially the same recommendations and guidelines as do those for the latter category of institutions. The guidelines for minimum collection size are different. In the junior college, a collection of 20,000 volumes is necessary for a student body of up to 1,000 FTE students and it should be enlarged by 5,000 volumes for every additional 500 FTE students. The standards stress the notion that these figures represent minimums, and that institutions with a multiplicity of programs may need a much larger collection.

The Guidelines for Library Services to Extension Students

For a number of years, college and university education has been made available to substantial numbers of qualified students through college and university extension programs. In the Fall of 1963, there were 272,000 students enrolled in such programs. Between 1955 and 1965, the number of students taking extension courses creditable toward a bachelor's or higher degree increased 81%, and the upward trend continues.[40] The separation of classroom and library that is characteristic of extension programs poses serious problems. Library resources for extension students are meager more often than not. Only when extension students live in communities with superior resources or when they attend evening classes at the main campus are they likely to have equivalent access to library resources. Consequently, extension courses must often be limited to the lecture-textbook method of instruction.

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[39] Harwell, Richard (ed.). The Place of a Research Library in a Liberal Arts College. Brunswick, Maine: Bowdoin College, 1963.

[40] Committee on Standards of the Association of College and Research Libraries. "Guidelines for Library Services to Extension Students." ALA Bulletin, January 1967. pp. 50-53.

The guidelines for library service to extension students appropriately assume that library resources are as essential for extension courses as they are for the on-campus ones. Those aspects of the guidelines which are applicable to undergraduate colleges are briefly summarized below.

1. A regular budget is essential for the financing of library services for extension purposes. The responsibility for this service must be shared by the extension division and the college library.

2. A professional librarian should be responsible for extension library service. He must maintain close contact with main library staff and with field instructors.

3. Extension division, instructor and librarian must together assess the availability of library resources before a course is approved. Providing the necessary material will often necessitate cooperation with local public libraries, other colleges, various extension centers within the state, and/or the state library. If several colleges and universities offer courses in a community, they might consider the establishment of a joint extension library. Local libraries can receive grants for the purchase of necessary course materials. A course should not be approved if it cannot be supported with adequate library resources.

4. Special arrangements (late evening hours, late evening borrowing privileges) should be made to encourage evening or off-campus extension students to use the college library.

5. Essential journal material and indexes should be provided. Many difficulties must be overcome with the help of duplicate sets, copies, microform copies and the like. Public libraries should be provided with financial help if they are willing to cooperate through purchase and storage of material too scientific or technical for their usual needs.

These guidelines are not intended as standards against which library services to extension students can be evaluated. The ACRL committee on standards does feel that although "full acceptance and implementation of [these] suggestions will not necessarily insure a quality of library service equal to that available on campus, ... it will certainly result in a significant improvement in the services now being given."[41]

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[41] Ibid.

The Regional Accrediting Associations and College Library Standards

The six regional accrediting associations - covering New England, the Middle States, the South, the North Central States, the Northwest and the Western States - have no formal connection with the federal government, with any state government, or with each other. Each is held together by the general objective which is common to them all: to strengthen, improve and extend higher education. Although the associations are independent, the differences among them are superficial. "They are separate denominations, so to speak, but with a common apostolate. Out of it there does go a common attitude toward such matters as ALA's standards for college libraries."[42] A most important product of the accreditation process is not the accreditation itself, since well-established institutions are not dependent on accreditation, but the "total review and focusing of effort which the accreditation process affords."[43]

The evaluation processes are conducted by the regional associations in two phases: self-analysis by an institution's own faculty and staff, and parallel study by an outside group. While the regional associations generally will not endorse statements of professional societies, "faculties and visiting committees alike yearn for solid guidelines. They need concise, sharp descriptions of good practice; neither theoretical discussions nor ex cathedra pronouncements - just clear explication of the principles on which good programs are built and of the characteristics which appear to accompany excellence."[44]

In 1960, F. Taylor Jones of the Middle States Association described the Association's attitude toward the ALA standards.

First, the Association will work with ALA in the production of the standards (various officers and members of the Middle States Association, as well as of other associations, read and criticized the standards for two and four-year college libraries in their formative stages). The Middle States Association has published a document of its own on libraries. According to Mr. Jones, the Association document is an attempt to help faculty members and administrators ask the right questions about libraries, while the standards document attempts to give them ideas as to what the answers may be.

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[42] Jones, F. Taylor."The Regional Accrediting Association and the Standards for College Libraries". College and Research Libraries, July 1961. p. 271.

[43] Ibid.

[44] Ibid.

Second, the Association will advertise to its member colleges the ALA standards and similar publications of professional societies which do no violence to the Association's own principles.

Third, the Association will seek people who are thoroughly familiar with the materials of the specialized agencies to be members of evaluation teams. Evaluators are expected to draw upon all of their specialized experience and information, though the Association does not want them to cite the findings and positions of professional societies as criteria of judgment in Middle States evaluation reports, as doing so seems to commit the Association to them in a way in which it dislikes to be committed.

Fourth, the Association will recommend persons from specialized agencies (such as ALA) as institutional consultants when administrators or faculties or trustees need outside advice.

However, the Association will neither underwrite nor enforce the ALA standards. Nevertheless, the standards will have tremendous influence which the Association will aid and abet. The Association will call attention to the standards document "for serious study and practical implementation by all faculties and administrators, without ever suggesting to them that the good of the order or the salvation of individual souls depends on what the ALA alone says." The Association wants the standards "to be heard, debated, adapted, partly accepted and partly rejected, in the wholesome way of our free society, to the end that we all may learn more about the nature of excellence in higher education and more clearly approximate its dimensions."[45]

Relating Quantitative Standards to Specific Educational Purposes: The Clapp-Jordan Formula

The Clapp-Jordan formula represents "an attempt...to develop formulas in which separate accounts would be taken of the principle factors that affect the requirements for books in connection with academic programs, and in which each factor would be weighted in a manner capable of being related to and justified by practice."[46] The authors of the formula felt that its publication would "invite exploration of the conditions which affect academic needs for books, of the relative weights which should be attached to the various controlling factors, and of the basic hypothesis itself - namely, that it is possible to provide a meaningful quantitative measure of adequacy in library collections."[47]

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[45] Ibid.

[46] Clapp, Verner W. and Jordan, Robert T. "Quantitative Criteria for Adequacy of Academic Library Collections." College and Research Libraries, September 1965. pp. 371-380.

The controlling factors in the Clapp-Jordan formula include the size of faculty in full-time equivalents, the size of graduate or undergraduate student body in full-time equivalents, the number of undergraduates in honors or independent study programs, the number of fields of undergraduate concentration ("major" subject fields), the number of fields of graduate concentration for master's work or the equivalent, and the number of fields of graduate concentration for doctoral work or the equivalent (the last factor is, of course, not applicable in the case of undergraduate college libraries). Three categories of library materials are considered in the formula - books, periodicals and documents. For each category of material, a basic (undergraduate library) collection is specified as follows: books, 42,000 volumes (representing 35,000 titles); periodicals, 3,750 volumes (representing 250 titles); documents, 5,000 volumes (items); total volumes, 50,750. Additions to this basic collection depend on the controlling factors cited above.

Exhibit I shows an application of the Clapp-Jordan formula to a hypothetical four-year liberal arts college with 100 FTE faculty members, 1,000 FTE students, 100 students in honors programs, and 10 fields of undergraduate concentration. It is assumed that the hypothetical college offers no graduate programs. To the basic collection of 50,750 volumes, the formula would add: 10,000 volumes, based on the size of the faculty; 12,000 volumes, based on the size of the student body; 1,200 volumes, based on the number of students in honors programs; and 3,350 volumes, based on the number of fields of undergraduate concentration. Thus, the resulting total collection size required in this instance for "threshold adequacy" is 77,300 volumes.

Several qualifying factors should be borne in mind in interpreting this formula. The formula assumes that all material in the collection is to be carefully chosen and that an active and realistic weeding program is present. Because of the wide variability in the extensiveness of the literatures of various subjects, the suggested numbers of volumes to be added for each field of concentration should be regarded as averages. Factors represented in the formula do not operate in isolation - each one presumes the presence of the others. Some materials can be in microcopy. A title-volume ratio of 1:1.2 is used for books and of 1:15 for periodicals; documents are expressed in terms of volumes only; totals are also expressed in terms of volumes only. Finally, the formula is based on data which is not always readily available.

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[47] Ibid.

Exhibit I

Application of the Clapp-Jordan Formula to a Hypothetical Liberal-Arts College

To the basic undergraduate collection		50,750	volumes
add			
for 100 FTE Faculty	@ 100 volumes each	10,000	"
" 1,000 students	@ 12 " "	12,000	"
" 100 students in honors programs	@ 12 " "	1,200	"
" 10 fields of undergraduate concentration		3,350	"
Total collection required for threshold adequacy		77,300	volumes

ADMINISTERING THE COLLEGE LIBRARY: COMMUNICATION BETWEEN THE LIBRARY AND THE COLLEGE[48]

Because of the great variation in the educational goals and teaching methods of different colleges, college libraries vary widely. However the college library is structured and however it is used, it will fall short of full performance if it is not properly administered. The college librarian's position within the institution should be based on clear lines of authority. The teaching faculty should be heavily involved in the use and maintenance of library services and the librarians should participate, in turn, in curriculum planning.

It is important that the administration of the college be "library minded" and that the library have adequate lines of communication, both formal and informal, with the college's officers. The librarian may report to the president directly or through the academic dean. In any case, the library and its programs should receive top administrative attention.

The library staff needs considerable institutional information if it is to fulfill its functions. This information can be acquired through formal and informal channels. The college's administration can ensure that formal channels are available by making the chief librarian a member of the college's administrative and academic councils and of the library committee. In addition, the librarian should seek to have one faculty member from each department serve as the department's library representative. The departmental library representatives may provide the basis for involving the teaching faculty in book selection.

The college librarian must "identify the library with the faculty, library aims with teaching, and...transform latent faculty interest in the library into active resolve."[49] To do this, the librarian and his staff should be flexible and open to faculty suggestions. As a way of increasing understanding of library policies and problems, the librarian may "invite others to study library problems - administrators, the library committee, instructors, and students."[50] Informal communication between the faculty and the librarian and his staff may be important in improving library understanding of faculty teaching and research interests.

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[48] The discussion in this section is based in large part on Lyle, Guy R. The President, the Professor, and the College Library. New York: The H. W. Wilson Company, 1963.

[49] Ibid. p. 26.

[50] Ibid.

In addition to the library committee and the system of departmental library representatives, the college's board of control may have a committee on the library. Such committee should, in general, confine their attention to library policy. At the other end of the spectrum, a student committee on the library can be useful in communicating student needs and wishes to the library and in interpreting library policies and problems to the student body.

INSTRUCTING STUDENTS IN THE USE OF THE COLLEGE LIBRARY

In a 1937 article, the president of Yale University stated that "a student does not learn by being told how to use the library, but by using it. Moreover the responsibility for the use of books should not be centered in the librarian but in the faculty. All the work of instruction must be so organized that the student will need library books."[51] Patricia Knapp observes that "planned instruction in library use at the college level is still limited to one or two orientation lectures, and perhaps a 'library paper' in Freshman English."[52]

Mrs. Knapp argues that "competence in the use of the library is one of the liberal arts. It deserves recognition and acceptance as such in the college curriculum. It is, furthermore, a complex of knowledge, skills, and attitudes not to be acquired in any one course but functionally related to the content of many. It should, therefore, be integrated into the total curriculum."[53]

A program of instruction in library use should lead the student to an understanding of the nature and function of reference materials, of the library as a valuable source of information, of the nature and function of the bibliographical apparatus and of the function of literature searching as a necessary step in problem solving. It should enable him to locate and select various kinds of library materials from the subject approach (background material, critical, theoretical, factual and illustrating material, etc.). The student must be stimulated to use the opportunity the library offers him. His initiative is hampered by a flood of textbooks, reserve books, required readings and optional reading lists. He is given author and title, but not the opportunity to develop his skill in finding information about a given subject.

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[51] Wriston, Henry M. The Nature of the Liberal College. Appleton, Wisconsin: Lawrence College Press, 1937. Quoted in Patricia Knapp, "A Suggested Program of College Instruction in the Use of the Library." Library Quarterly, July 1956. pp. 224-231.

[52] Knapp, op. cit.

[53] Ibid.

If extensive use of the library is strongly connected with content courses, the student is more likely to develop a general attitude of appreciation and interest in making use of the literature. Including instruction in the use of the library as an integral part of content courses provides the student with a planned opportunity to develop a general attitude towards learning with books; it provides him with a continuity of library experience over four years, integrated through repetition in all courses and sequenced in terms of increasing breadth and depth of knowledge, skills and attitudes.

First year college courses should be deliberately planned to provide the student with experiences in the use of the library and with skill in the selection of background materials (encyclopedias, yearbooks and annuals, books reviews and selected bibliographies, etc.) and in locating these and other materials (statistics, almanacs, periodicals, etc.). Second year courses should provide continuity in sequence requiring the student to apply what he has learned so far to different materials and on a wider scale. With the beginning of specialization at the upper class level, the student must be led to an understanding of the bibliographic apparatus in special subject areas. Term papers should require the student to locate sound and relevant materials, and the student should be required to compile a better bibliography than such papers customarily include.

Responsibility for making instruction in the use of the library an integral part of the curriculum lies with the faculty, but clearly the librarian should initiate the program.

One question related to instruction in library use is that of the correlation between expertise in library use and academic achievement. In fact, "determining correlations between performance in library tests and academic achievement has been the objective of several investigations over a period of time."[54] Joyce's investigation correlated the scores made on a library test by 64 seniors specializing in elementary education in a teachers college with their academic record. He concluded that "a significant and positive relationship was established. Those scoring higher than the median on the library test tended to have higher four-year course averages than those who scored below."[55]

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[54] Henne, Francis. "Instruction in the Use of the Library and Library Use by Students." Quoted in Tauber, Maurice F. and Stevens, Irlene R., Conference on the Use of Printed and Audio-Visual Materials for Intructional Purposes. New York: Columbia University School of Library Service, 1966.

[55] Joyce, W. D. "Study of Academic Achievement and Performance on a Test of Library Understandings." Journal of Educational Research, January 1961. And Joyce, "Student Grades and Library Use: A Relationship Established." Library Journal, February 15, 1961. Quoted in Henne, op. cit.

Francis Henne has reported on other aspects of instruction in library use.

> "Josey[56] received 397 replies to questionnaires sent to 500 colleges and universities inquiring about various aspects of instruction in the use of the library. His findings showed that 27% of the sample had a required formal course in library instruction; 45% gave one lecture or guided tour during orientation week; 19% held several lectures during orientation week; and 59% incorporated library instruction in Freshman English. Ninety-five percent of the sample affirmed the belief that library instruction should involve the cooperation of the library staff. In an earlier study, Mishoff[57] identified 563 colleges and universities in a survey of nearly 1900 institutions that had a catalog listing of a library course of some type - library instruction or library science - at the undergraduate level.
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> "The Southern Illinois University Study[58] experimented with the feasibility of turning library instruction for college freshmen over to teaching machines. Four sections of Freshman English classes used the teaching machine only, four sections covered the same content from lectures, and four received no library instruction. Tests were administered before and after the experiment, which covered a five-week instructional period. Students receiving no instruction did significantly less well than students with instruction. Although there was no significant difference between the achievement of the machine group and the lecture group, those directing the study felt that the programmed instruction had contributed definite advantages."[59]

Films as well as programmed materials have been employed for instructional programs in library use. While some elements of such instruction must be tailored to local library characteristics and thus do not lend themselves to the use of mass market instructional materials, other elements are common to all libraries. Greater quantity and variety of well prepared materials covering such elements would be desirable.

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[56] Josey, E. J. "The Role of the College Library Staff in Instruction in the Use of the Library." College and Research Libraries, November 1962. Quoted in Henne, op. cit.

[57] Mishoff, W. O. "Undergraduate Programs of Library Education: A Current Summary." Higher Education, September 1957. Quoted in Henne, op. cit.

[58] McCoy, Ralph E. "Automation in Freshman Library Instruction." Wilson Library Bulletin, February 1962. Quoted in Henne, op. cit.

[59] Henne, op. cit.

THE RELATIONSHIP OF THE COLLEGE LIBRARY TO OTHER LIBRARIES AND TO THE NON-COLLEGE PUBLIC

The possibility for reducing costs and extending service as a result of cooperative endeavors has been recognized for many decades by librarians in libraries of every type. College libraries have in many instances found it profitable to cooperate with each other, and in some instances they have entered into cooperative relationships with other types of libraries.

The college library's primary service population is its own college community. Cooperative arrangements with other libraries can take many forms. Often, they entail obligations to extend service to members of other college communities or to the non-college public. In some cases, certain services may be extended to the non-college public quite apart from the requirements of any cooperative arrangement. Libraries in junior colleges which receive community support may take on responsibilities for providing library services to the community at large. Libraries in state supported colleges may feel pressures to serve elements of the general public and of industry, and the same is true of academic libraries which receive federal grants-in-aid for building construction or for library materials.

Cooperative Arrangements with Other Libraries

Cooperative arrangements can take many forms. The list presented below is not intended to be exhaustive, nor does it make any attempt to list areas for cooperation in order of their relative importance. It does, however, include some of the more important areas for cooperation:

- interlibrary exchange of materials, including interloan of materials or exchange of photocopied materials
- improved communications systems systems to facilitate interloan and exchange of materials
- the preparation of union catalogs and union lists of serials to facilitate interloan and exchange of materials
- cooperative purchasing to obtain larger quantity discounts
- coordinated acquisition of materials to eliminate unnecessary duplication of less often used materials

- establishment of regional depositories (centralized storage) for less often used or other special categories of materials

- centralized book processing and centralized or cooperative cataloging

- exchange systems for duplicates and discards

As an item for discussion, interlibrary cooperation has been on the agenda for many years. "A paper on college libraries presented at the World's Library Congress in connection with the Columbian Exposition in 1893 summarizes practices which are of sufficient currency and timeliness to appear on the program of a college section meeting of any of our national or state conventions today. Some of the topics discussed were: selection of books, classification, access to shelves, departmental libraries, instruction in bibliography, subject catalogues, devices for popularizing libraries, and cooperation."[60]

Lyle also discusses "the movement toward library cooperation which developed during the 1930's." The movement took several forms: (1) the coordination of the existing library resources represented by the Oregon library consolidations, the Claremont Colleges program, and others; (2) the extension of interlibrary loans through a more liberal policy of loans and the publications of new union "finding-lists;" (3) cooperation in book ordering whereby larger discounts have been made available to individual libraries; and (4) cooperation in routines and library techniques.[61]

While the potential benefits of cooperation have long been recognized, the establishment of actual cooperative arrangements has proceeded very slowly. Participation by college libraries in cooperative arrangements - especially of an integrated, "library-system" nature - is the exception rather than the rule. While some cooperative groups of college libraries exist, they are piecemeal and diverse in nature.

Perhaps the best example of the benefits of cooperation among college libraries and the problems which cooperation entails is to be found in the library programs of the 18 California tate olleges. The California colleges offer a unique opportunity for cooperative arrangements, because of the magnitude of their operations and because of the

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60 Little. "School and College Libraries." In Dewey, Papers Presented for the World's Library Congress. Quoted in Guy R. Lyle, The Administration of the College Library. New York: The H. W. Wilson Company, 1945.

61 Lyle, op. cit.

essential similarity of the institutions' concerns. Nevertheless, with respect to centralized technical processing of library materials, for instance, the Committee on Library Development for the California State Colleges recently had this to say: "the consolidation of acquisitions and/or processing operations of the California state college libraries in the manner of large city or county library systems is not an economical means of reducing processing costs. The 18 campuses do not constitute the basis for a joint processing venture. The nature of the materials being acquired, the degree of common interests, the unavailability of larger discounts for scholarly and scientific publications, the difficulty of coordinating faculty selections, differences in existing cataloging and classification procedures all outweigh any advantages of joint processing. Coordination of effort and the extension of services by the Library of Congress will produce more significant savings."[62]

A feature unique to academic libraries is that faculty members often or usually make purchase decisions. The California report states "the important point in selection, however, is that the individual faculty member generally makes the decision on what to buy. The public library can centralize the decision-making, whether it is a single library or a large system." Further, the interests of faculty members in different colleges vary considerably. "The curricula of the California state colleges are not identical nor is there any intent that they should be. Consequently the book collections will vary to the same degree that curriculum varies. Not all collections are at the same stage of development; hence the area of common interest in current purchases is limited to new publications which are acquired by all or part of the libraries. It would be expected that there would be a considerable area of common interest, but it would probably be a fraction of the total acquisitions and far less than one would expect in a group of public libraries."

The fact that faculty members do much of the book selection for college libraries and the fact that the teaching and research interests of faculty members in different colleges vary considerably, even in a system of public colleges like the California system, renders more difficult the operation of a consolidated purchasing and processing system for college libraries.

Another problem is created by the lack of uniformity in cataloging and classification policies of college libraries. "Nearly half of the [California State College] libraries use the Dewey decimal classification and the balance employ the Library of Congress system. The former group comprises many of the older and larger collections. The libraries tend to follow Library of Congress cataloging rules, but there are countless variations in all of the libraries...It is clear that uniformity in cataloging and classification policies is essential for maximum economy and centralized processing and that ultimately such uniformity must be achieved. The cost of conversion under present circumstances would be considerable and is the major obstacle to cooperative effort." On this subject, the California report goes on to say, "Most libraries now follow Library of Congress policies with few or no modifications. Where these policies have not been followed in the past or a different classification scheme (e.g. Dewey) had been used, the library is committed to a considerable extra burden. Supplementary assistance for these libraries is needed to help them convert to Library of Congress practices. Once this conversion is accomplished, it will be easier to coordinate the cataloging on the 18 campuses."

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[62] Committee on Library Development for the California State Colleges. Recommendations for the Support of California State College Libraries. The Committee, April 1966.

Given the presence of all these problems, the California report points out that "automation of technical processing appears to offer greater potential savings than either consolidated purchasing or contract cataloging...automation in the sense that it is used here refers to the application of electronic equipment to the performance of routine, repetitive functions of the acquisition and cataloging operation. It is related to the general problem of information retrieval but applies specifically to the mechanization of various library processes."

The report further states that "the development of an automation program based on computers may be a better long-term solution for processing costs and may also provide an effective basis for coordination of effort. Progress to date in other libraries seems to indicate that automation equipment is available to perform the necessary services. The initial step is the development of a systemwide program and the formulation of appropriate specifications. This is a complex process which will require considerable time and a fairly large investment of money to accomplish."

What does the California report recommend for coordination of the colleges' library programs? First, it recommends coordinated storage of little-used materials. "Of the two available methods of cooperative storage - centralized storage and coordinated storage - the latter seems more applicable now as providing for joint access to little-used materials. Ultimately, when the quantity of such materials warrants, a centralized storage program would be more economical. Both systems demand methods for locating and delivering material. Costs of record keeping would be quite high in the present state of the art conditions.

Anticipated technological changes, such as a computer-based index, would make record keeping cheaper and more feasible. Minimal requirements for the present are rapid telecommunication and one-day service."

Second, the report recommends automation of technical processing. "Library inventory data and catalogue data in machine readable form will make possible use of electronic equipment for orders, post encumberances, accounts, claims, catalogue records, charge cards, search and file. Once a group of libraries converts to such a system, information can be readily exchanged or merged into a common record. Such a system, however, must be designed as a whole to take care of as many operations as possible. Access to computer equipment and operating personnel to develop programming for one college will take considerable investment but is feasible and offers the best answer available to more efficient operation. Ultimate return would be very great in relation to development costs and current operating costs."

The recommendations of the report can be summarized as follows:

1. that a study be made of the library publications currently being acquired by the California state college libraries to identify the areas of common needs and interest;
2. that a program be developed to assign areas of responsibility for acquisition in coordinated storage to eliminate unnecessary duplication of highly specialized materials and to extend the scope of current acquisitions;
3. that an effort be made to negotiate automatic purchase programs for areas of common need and systemwide responsibility;
4. that a program be developed to secure or generate cataloging information in machine readable form for the areas of common need and that such information be distributed to all libraries for the production of cataloging records; and,
5. that the trustees initiate as soon as possible a systemwide project to develop a long-range program for the automation of libraries in the system.

The opportunities for cooperation available to the California state college libraries are probably not available to the libraries in every college. Even in the California system, the obstacles to a standardized program of library services are insurmountable, at least at the present time; given the differences among the colleges, a completely standarized program would hardly be desirable. Opportunities for cooperation do exist, however, and many of them are also available to colleges in other public systems and to private colleges.

Another illustrative example of a cooperative program is the "Area Colleges Cooperative Program."

> "In this plan, a program for sharing library resources has been initiated by 9 South Central Pennsylvania Colleges. Member libraries will exchange information on holdings, keep location records of significant holdings, prepare pertinent union lists, and develop areas of special concentration. Materials will be available to member libraries through inter-library loaning and copying services. Permit cards will be issued for work in any member library. The 9 participating colleges are Dickinson, Elizabethtown, Franklin and Marshall, Gettysburg, Juniata, Messiah, Millersville State, Shippensburg, and Wilson College."[63]

Use of the College Library by the Non-College Public

Many issues concerning the community use of the college library remain undecided. Although there is little question but that the college library's primary responsibility is to the college community, college librarians take a broad view of their service responsibilities. In 1965, the Association of College and Research Libraries undertook a study of community use of academic libraries. The findings of that study are discussed briefly below.

One respondent to the questionnaire used by ACRL in conducting the survey provided a good summary of the basic issues:

> "The mechanics of cooperative use of library resources should be given more attention. Libraries are determined cooperators, but an institution's first responsibility is to its constituents. There is probably a way out of our dilemma, but we librarians have not found it because our thinking about cooperation is still fuzzy and subjective. Library resources are a national asset. Irresponsible use can destroy this asset. We shall have to move at some combination of common sense and good

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[63] Elser, George C. "Exit Controls and the Statewide Card." College and Research Libraries, May 1967.

> will that will permit us to serve the need without destroying the resources."[64]

A total of 783 college and university libraries responded to ACRL's 1965 questionnaire on community use. Issues investigated included respondent's policies on use by other than members of the academic community, their attitudes toward use by high school students, their attitudes toward issuance of statewide or regional library cards, their policies regarding use fees, policies on alumni use and policies regarding exit control and other safeguards.

In general, the overwhelming majority of the responding libraries allowed in-building use of their collections by non-members of the academic community. Many of these institutions also extended borrowing privileges to some, but not all, non-academic users. Students of other colleges, teachers and clergymen were given service by most of the responding libraries, but many refused service to high school students. Some colleges required high school students to submit referral forms or passes signed by their school librarians or teachers, a practice which apparently alleviates many of the problems associated with use of academic libraries by school students. Sixty-six per cent of the responding libraries rejected the idea of a statewide library card. Smaller college libraries were apparently more willing to accept the idea of a statewide card than larger ones, and more publicly-supported than privately-supported institutions accepted the idea, as might be expected. Some private institutions were willing to accept the statewide card if some state reimbursement were provided. On the other hand, very few of the responding libraries charged fees for use of their collections. About 9% of the responding libraries granted no special library privileges to alumni.

E. J. Josey, moderator of the symposium on community use of academic libraries at which the findings of this study were presented, took up the question of the local self-sufficiency of academic libraries:

> "Are we justified when we permit the public library to service our clientele, and at the same time, deny service to the clientele of the public library?
>
> "As we rush head-on into the 1970's with growing student enrollments, more of our students will be knocking on the doors of their public libraries. Concurrently, as we turn out more college graduates,

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[64] Quoted by Barbara Lamont in E. J. Josey, moderator. "Community Use of Academic Libraries." College and Research Libraries, May 1967.

> most of these same graduates who will not be affiliated with institutions of learning will desire to use the libraries of neighboring colleges and universities, as well as the collections of their public libraries.
>
> "The myth of local self-sufficiency of academic libraries has been long refuted by libraries that participate in many cooperative projects. More recently, academic libraries are accepting federal assistance, not only for building construction, but also for books, materials, and equipment. The question of whether or not to deny a taxpayer the right to use his tax dollar in a given academic library may no longer be moot. In an editorial on access to libraries, Eric Moon wrote 'Could not non-residents argue that they had a right of free access to libraries receiving generous support from state and federal funds to which their taxes had contributed?' Could we not re-phrase Mr. Moon's question to read: 'Could not residents of the community argue that they had a right of free access to college and university libraries receiving generous support from state and federal funds to which their taxes had contributed?'
>
> "On the national scene, it has been reported that when representatives of ALA testified before the Congress on Title II of the Higher Education Act, there were many queries regarding the opening of academic collections to the general public, if federal funds were granted. In the light of these realities, the time may not be too distant, when funds will not be given to college and university libraries which do not believe in sharing their resources with the community."[65]

While college libraries lack uniform policies on use of their resources by persons not affiliated with the institution, a great many of them are clearly of a mind to extend such service. With increasing public support, even in private colleges, the pressures for widening the service boundaries of academic libraries and the pressures for greater interlibrary cooperation will undoubtedly increase. There is a definite need for regional planning involving public, school and college libraries aimed at the legitimate use of college libraries by the community at large.

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[65] Josey, E. J., op. cit.

FINANCING COLLEGE LIBRARY SERVICES

Early college libraries in the United States received a very substantial part of their support in the form of private gifts of books. This source of support, especially in the libraries of private colleges, continued to be significant into the 20th Century. In recent years, however, in private as well as public college libraries, the capital and operating budgets of the libraries' parent institutions have provided by far the largest single source of support for college library activity. Aside from private donors and the parent academic institution, the principal sources of funds for undergraduate and junior college libraries are government agencies and private foundations.

While current and complete statistical data concerning college library finances are difficult to obtain, it is possible to make the following general statements about college library financing:

- the main source of support for the college library is usually its parent institution;
- capital expenditures for libraries as a percentage of total capital expenditures of colleges and universities are increasing;
- operating expenditures of academic libraries as a percentage of total operating expenses of parent institutions are increasing; and,
- the federal share in college library financing is increasing.

In 1957, the construction of libraries accounted for 4.7% of all academic construction; in 1968, the percentage will increase to an estimated 6.4%.[66] Operating funds allotted to academic libraries also have increased from 3.0% of total educational and general expenditure in the nation's colleges and universities in 1957-58 to an estimated 3.3% in 1966.[67]

Two studies published in the early 1960's investigated the question of private gifts to academic libraries, and one study investigated foundation support for university libraries. The findings of these studies have some relevance for college as well as university libraries.

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[66] U.S. Office of Education. Biennial Survey of Education in the United States 1956-58. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1960. p. 50.

[67] American Library Association. Library Statistics of Colleges and Universities, 1965-66, Institutional Data. Chicago, 1967. pp. 6-7.

In 1961, Benjamin E. Powell published the results of an investigation of the finances of 12 state-supported and 10 privately-supported academic libraries. The privately-supported academic libraries derived 18.5% of their operating budgets from cash gifts in the academic year 1956-57. The 12 state-supported academic libraries in the Powell sample derived only 2.5% of their operating budgets from cash gifts in the same year. Powell separated endowment funds from cash gifts; for 1956-57 the privately-supported libraries in his sample received cash endowments amounting to 8.2% of their operating budgets, while the comparable figure for the publicly-supported institutions was only 1.6%.[68]

A similar study, but one based on a larger sample of academic libraries, was published in 1962. Using a sample of 32 privately-supported and 47 state-supported academic libraries, Ralph Hopp found that only 7.3% of the 1960-61 operating budgets of privately-supported academic libraries came from donations, while the comparable figure for state-supported academic libraries was 8.2%.[69]

The only recent comprehensive study of the role of the foundation in academic library financing was published by Gustave A. Harrer. Harrer concluded that of the money given by foundations, 47% goes to educational institutions. Of that total, only 1% is allocated to libraries.[70]

Since 1958, government agencies have played an expanding role in financing academic libraries. Theodore Samore has observed that academic libraries, with the assistance of federal funds, are at a "take-off" stage in acquisitons, staffing and construction. In the fiscal year ending June 30, 1966, federal grants to academic institutions for the purchase of library materials totaled $8.2 million.[71] For fiscal year 1967, the appropriation for academic library materials under Title II-A of the Higher Education Act was $24.5 million. Federal participation in academic library construction cost has been much greater, dollar-wise, than its financing of the acquisition of library materials as witnessed by the fact that the federal share of academic library construction projects partially funded under the Higher Education Facilities Act in fiscal year 1965 was just under $186 million.[72]

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[68] Powell, Benjamin E. "Sources of Support for Libraries in American Universities." University of Tennessee Library Lectures No. 10. pp. 9-10.

[69] Hopp, Ralph H. "Private and Industrial Funds for University Libraries." College and Research Libraries, November 1962.

[70] Harrer, Gustave A. "Foundation Support for University Libraries." College and Research Libraries, November 1962.

[71] Samore, Theodore. "College and University Library Statistics and Legislation: Review and Report." Bowker Annual, 1967.

[72] Samore, Theodore. "College and University Library Statistics and Legislation: Review and Report." Bowker Annual, 1966.

Chapter 5

FEDERAL LEGISLATION AND FEDERAL AGENCY ACTIVITIES AFFECTING COLLEGE LIBRARIES

Increased federal support for, and participation in, library services has come about as a result of a greatly increased appreciation of the importance of library and information services and of the difficult nature of some of the problems involved in providing them. Federal legislation and the activities of several federal agencies touch upon college library services in a wide variety of ways. Direct federal aid has been made available to help college libraries construct buildings and purchase new materials, and indirect aid has helped them add to their staffs. Various federal agencies, most notably the Library of Congress, have initiated library systems development activities which may have a major effect upon college library services in the future.

Those pieces of legislation which directly affect college library services are discussed in this chapter. Their provisions and current findings are summarized briefly in Exhibit I. Federal agency activities bearing on college library services are reviewed in latter sections of the chapter, as are those pieces of legislation which have only potential effects upon college libraries or which affect them only indirectly.

THE HIGHER EDUCATION ACT OF 1965

Taken together, the many provisions of the Higher Education Act of 1965 make it an extremely significant piece of legislation from the point of view of college library services. The three parts of Title II provide for the purchase of materials for college and university libraries, for training and research in librarianship, and for extension of the national cataloging system through increased Library of Congress acquisitions and the sharing of bibliographic information from foreign national bibliographic centers. Title III provides partial support for cooperative arrangements between developing and established institutions, a program which has involved the libraries of the cooperating institutions in a number of instances. Title IV-C, the college work-study program, provides part-time employment for college students, some of whom can be employed as student assistants in college libraries. Title VI-B provides for training institutes for specialists who use educational media for instruction at the undergraduate college level.

Title II, Part A of the Higher Education Act

Funds made available under Title II-A (the "College Resources Program") are intended for the acquisition of library materials - including books, periodicals, documents, magnetic tapes, phonographic records, other audio-visuals materials,maps, and graphic reproductions. Binding costs can also be covered where applicable.

Colleges and universities alone or in combination may apply for basic II-A grants (which must be matched on a half-and-half basis) of up to $5,000. In addition, institutions with inadequate library resources can request supplementary grants, which need not be matched, of $10. per full-time student. Finally, "special-purpose" grants, which require one-third matching, may be made. Basic and special-purpose grants require maintenance of effort as well as matching. Supplementary grants are intended for institutions with especially inadequate library resources in the general sense. Special-purpose grants are intended to meet the special national or regional library needs, or to provide an institution with library resources which by their special nature will constitute a unique and important addition to existing library resources.

A basic grant of $5,000 may represent a significant increase in the book budget of a small college library, and a supplemental grant is likely to be even more significant. Moreover, the growth of smaller college libraries may provide indirect benefits to larger ones in terms of reduced requests for interlibrary loans and photocopies.

In the first year of operation of the Title II-A program, fiscal 1966, 1,830 separate grants totaling $8.4 million were made to college and university libraries. The appropriation for fiscal 1967 is $25 million, and it has been estimated that 2,000 basic, 375 supplemental, and 350 special-purpose grants have been made.

Title II, Part B of the Higher Education Act

Title II-B is a two-part effort intended to increase opportunities for training in academic, school, public, or special librarianship and to support broad-scale research on library problems. College libraries stand to gain on both counts.

For the academic year 1966-67, 139 graduate fellowships in library and information science were awarded under Title II-B, including 62 at the master's level, 25 at an "intermediate" post-master's level, and 52 for doctoral study. Priority for fellowships at the post-master's level has been given to potential library school teachers because of the current critical shortage of such faculty. Stipends for study at the master's level are $2,200, while those at the post-master's level are $5,000; candidates with dependents receive a $600 additional dependency payment. Fellowships at the post-master's level are renewable. To defray the costs of instruction, sponsoring institutions receive a $2,500 annual institutional support payment for each fellowship awarded. The sum of $3,750,000 has been appropriated to support this fellowship program in the current fiscal year(1967). Academic libraries as well as libraries of other types should derive the benefits of this program, in terms of increased availability of professional manpower, for years to come.

Title II-B also provides support for library research. A total of $3,550,000 was appropriated for this purpose for the current fiscal year, and 38 projects have been approved and funded. The research projects are aimed, in general, at the improvement of libraries and library training. Emphasis is being given to research involving applications of new technology and information science. Projects especially pertinent to college library service include a study to be performed at Hampshire College in Amherst, Massachusetts, which "will investigate such things as dial-access communications systems to bring library resources to dormitory rooms;" [73] two studies on the copyright question; and a study intended to develop plans for research in four areas for academic libraries including "systems design; technology and techniques; coordination of administrative and operational procedures; and education, information, and library service."[74]

The research provisions of Title II-B should help bring some of the applications of new technology to college libraries closer to realization. Together, the two parts of Title II-B should help college libraries meet the mounting demands for additional services.

Title II, Part C of the Higher Education Act

Title II-C authorizes the U. S. Commissioner of Education to transfer funds to the Library of Congress to acquire scholarly materials published abroad and to provide bibliographic information related to those materials through the printing of catalog cards and by other means. An important result of this program will be a considerable expansion of Library of Congress collections (at an estimated rate of 75,000 titles per year) but the fundamental goal is the swift provision of comprehensive catalog copy to academic libraries.

Under the Title II-C program, the Library of Congress is to obtain, through a national bibliographic source in each cooperating country, the earliest possible bibliographic listing for each title published in that country. Bibliographic information so acquired, or that which is acquired through receipt of a copy of the work itself, is made available in finished catalog card form to participating libraries in the United States. Since some academic libraries formerly found that the Library of Congress catalog copy was available for only a portion of their annual acquisitions, the Shared Cataloging and Acquisition Program helps to further reduce cataloging costs on a nationwide basis and to alleviate the problems of mounting cataloging backlogs.

The Shared Cataloging and Acquisition Program provided for under Title II-C is one of the more modestly funded programs undertaken at the federal level for the aid of libraries, but it is one of the most important. One observer has noted that "When fully developed and properly used, the new system represents a revolutionary change, surpassing in importance the introduction of the unit card at the beginning of the century."[75] The

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[73] Library Journal, August 1967. p. 2691.

[74] Ibid, p. 2694

[75] Orne, Jerrold. "Title II-C, a Little Revolution." in The Southeastern Librarian, Fall 1966. p. 165.

Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare has said that "the most important help given [to libraries] by the Higher Education Act was the assignment to the Library of Congress of funds to acquire materials currently published throughout the world and to expand its central cataloging service."[76]

Title III of the Higher Education Act

Title III offers substantial possibilities for the improvement of college library services. It is intended to strengthen developing institutions by providing partial support for their cooperative relationships with established institutions.[77]

Of the total 1967 appropriation of more than $28 million, about $124 thousand was used to assist eleven projects aiding college libraries. The largest of these 11 grants has provided support for Graceland College (Iowa), Tarkio College (Missouri), and the Kansas City Public Library to increase their holdings and hours of availability for student research. Another grant has provided support for a project in which Plymouth State College of New Hampshire is converting its catalog to the Library of Congress classification system and making its record of holdings compatible with that of the University of New Hampshire in order to facilitate joint processing of materials.

Title IV, Part C of the Higher Education Act

Under the provisions for the college work-study program contained in Title IV-C, colleges and universities may apply to the Division of Student Financial Aid of the Office of Education for funds to pay students for part-time work. Substantial funding - a total of $134,100,000 - has been provided for fiscal 1967. The program enables colleges to provide their libraries with student assistant help, though no data are currently available on the proportion of this aid which has been used in college libraries to other activities.

Title VI, Parts A and B of the Higher Education Act

Title VI of the Higher Education Act is intended to promote the use of educational media - primarily non-print materials - in college and university instruction. Part A provides for the acquisition of materials and equipment to be used in selected subject areas. Audio-visual materials and television equipment and materials can be purchased, as well as laboratory and other equipment suitable for use in undergraduate instruction. Funding for Part A is $14.5 million for fiscal 1967.

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[76] Gardner, John W. "A Fancy Gothic Fiction." Library Journal, May 15, 1967. p. 1896.

[77] "Developing" institutions must have been in existence for at least five years.

Part B of Title VI provides funds for workshops and institutes to "improve the capabilities of educational media specialists and others using such media at college level."[77] College librarians, faculty members or other specialists who will make use of educational media in working with undergraduates may participate in the Faculty Development Programs which are contemplated. The Office of Education has announced a list of 51 colleges and universities in 31 states which will sponsor the first series of workshops and institutes for a total of about 2,200 participants. Institute participants receive stipends of $75 per week plus $15 for each dependent, while workshop participants receive no stipends. Total funding for the program for fiscal 1967 is $2.5 million.

THE HIGHER EDUCATION FACILITIES ACT OF 1963

Federal assistance in underwriting capital construction costs has given a great boost to the construction of academic facilities. College library facilities have figured prominently in the building activities undertaken with federal assistance. An estimated 30 percent of the $1 billion spend under HEFA has gone into library buildings.[78] The relatively high capital cost of library facilities, which cannot easily be amortized through direct charges to students, has probably contributed to the high priority of library construction in the early years of the Higher Education Facilities Act, as has the pressing need for new library facilities to keep up with expansion in publication and changing library technology.

All grants made under HEFA are on a matching basis. Title I has provided $99.6 million in fiscal 1967 to be applied to the building needs of public community colleges and technical institutes and an additional $353.3 million for construction needs of other undergraduate colleges, both public and private. Title II, which provides for construction of graduate facilities, has been used to assist in the construction of graduate library buildings in universities but has no particular relevance for undergraduate colleges, except in the sense that the library facilities which formerly served both graduate and undergraduate schools in universities have, in some cases, been specifically designated as undergraduate facilities where new graduate libraries have been constructed. Title III has provided $200 million to be used as federal loan funds for construction in public or private, graduate or undergraduate institutions.

While data are not presently available on the proportion of HEFA funds expended to date which has been used for library construction, Henry T. Drennan, of the Division of Library Services of the U. S. Office of Education, has reported that "The program of the Higher Education

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77 "Directory of Legislative Programs, Fiscal Year 1967." ALA Bulletin, October 1967.

78 Gardner, John W., op. cit.

Facilities Act of 1963 as amended included 351 projects in fiscal 1966. Federal commitments amounted to $115 million of the total construction costs of $394.5 million."[79] Mr. Drennan goes on to report that HEFA will make available a total of $720 million in fiscal 1967 from which academic libraries, as well as other higher education facilities, may receive assistance, but that "officials of the Bureau of Higher Education of the Office of Education do not anticipate in fiscal 1967 the same volume of academic library construction as occurred in fiscal 1966."[80]

PUBLIC LAW 480

The Agricultural Trade Development and Assistance Act of 1954 (Public Law 480, as amended) authorizes the Librarian of Congress to use certain amounts, as appropriated by Congress, of United States-owned foreign currencies for the purchase of foreign publications; for cataloging, indexing, abstracting, and related activities; and for the deposit of such materials in libraries and research centers in the United States. The foreign currencies concerned are received as payments for commodities provided by the United States to foreign countries under the terms of Public Law 480. They are deposited to the account of the United States overseas. Amounts which are in excess of the normal expenses of the U. S. Government in those countries can be appropriated for the acquisition of published materials. In 1962, the first funds were appropriated for the operation of book procurement centers in India, Pakistan, and the United Arab Republic. In 1964, centers in Indonesia, Burma, and Israel followed. By June 1965, over 4 million publications had been acquired and distributed to some 300 institutions in the United States receiving English language material, and to 31 institutions receiving foreign language material. For fiscal year 1967, Congress appropriated $2,268,000 for the program.

THE DEPOSITORY LIBRARY ACT OF 1962

Because of the research importance of an adequate collection of government documents, college and university libraries have always been well represented among depository libraries for U. S. Government publications. Of the depository libraries listed in the September 1965 "Monthly Catalog," 66 percent were academic libraries. This interest in depository status on the part of college libraries was stimulated by the passage of the Depository Library Act of 1962. The Act provides for the creation of a maximum of 601 new depositories, no more than two of which may be in any one Congressional district. This will bring the maximum to an estimated 1,321 depositories. Of the first 127 depositories established under the Depository Library Act of 1962, 80 were college libraries.

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[79] Drennan, Henry T. "Federal Funds for Facilities." ALA Bulletin, October 1967.

[80] Ibid.

There are two categories of depository libraries - regional depositories, limited to two per state, and other depositories which are not subject to all of the requirements which must be met by regional depositories. Any library seeking depository status must be approved for such status either by the head of every existing depository library in its state or by the head of the library authority in the state. Regional depositories must, in addition, agree to retain at least one copy of all government publications either in printed or microfacsimile form; to give interlibrary loan and reference service within the region served; and to assist other depository libraries in disposing of unwanted government publications, which may be disposed of with the permission of the regional library after they have been retained for five years.

The Depository Act makes available to depository libraries all government publications printed in the Government Printing Office (GPO) as well as those printed in non-GPO subsidiary printing plants in the United States and overseas. Depository libraries (excepting regional depositories) are permitted to select those documents they want to receive and reject others. Various library organizations have joined in a "Documents Expediting Project," the purpose of which is to locate the non-GPO publications and make copies available to member libraries, a service which the Superintendent of Documents does not currently provide.

THE NATIONAL SCIENCE FOUNDATION ACT OF 1950

An important source of federal funds for library and information science research and development is the National Science Foundation, established under the provisions of the National Science Foundation Act of 1950. The Foundation's Office of Science Information Service estimates that it will expend $1.5 million for library research and development in fiscal 1967. The office considers proposals from any organization which provides significant science information services and facilities to scientists, or which has the competence to perform research on science information systems. It is primarily interested in supporting libraries and information services in academic institutions, scientific societies and other organizations of similar character.

The office's other goals are to foster the interchange of scientific information on an international scale to provide indexing, abstracting, and translation services, and to develop new methodology, including mechanized systems for dissemination of scientific information. The office works to provide coordination of federal and non-federal scientific and technical information services.

THE VOCATIONAL EDUCATION ACT OF 1963

The Vocational Education Act of 1963 establishes permanently, through its Section 4(c), the area technical education program originally authorized on a temporary basis by Title VIII of National Defense Education Act of 1958. This section provides additional federal funds, not only for specialized high schools and technical or vocational schools, but also for departments or divisions of junior colleges, community colleges or communities which provide vocational education in no less than five different occupational fields under the supervision of the state board for vocational education, leading to immediate employment but not leading to a baccalaureate degree.

Funds are available for the reimbursement of payments for librarians' salaries, library books, other materials, supplies and, in some cases, the costs of constructing and equipping library facilities. Eligibility of institutions of higher education for these funds depends upon state plans for vocational education in each state. In states where state plans involve community colleges or universities in vocational education, federal support funds are made available to those institutions through the state departments of education.

THE NATIONAL FOUNDATION ON THE ARTS AND HUMANITIES ACT OF 1965

Under the provisions of the National Foundation on the Arts and Humanities Act, the sum of $1 million has been appropriated for fiscal 1967, permitting the purchase of arts and humanities materials for elementary and secondary schools and college and university libraries to upgrade their resources in the humanities. The program is intended to promote progress in scholarship in the humanities and arts.

The National Endowment for the Humanities provides non-matching grants and loans for research, training, publication of scholarly works and exchange of information in the field of humanities. The National Endowment for the Arts provides matching grants to non-profit organizations and state and other public organizations. A federal council for the coordination of the two endowments and other programs has been established.

SUMMARY

Exhibit II, which begins on the following page, presents a summary account of the provisions and funding of the federal legislation which has had a major influence on college library services.

Exhibit II

FEDERAL ASSISTANCE FOR COLLEGE LIBRARIES
FISCAL YEAR 1967

AUTHORIZATION	PURPOSE	APPROPRIATION
Higher Education Act of 1965		
Title II-A	Strengthen library resources of colleges and universities.	$24,500,000
Title II-B	Increase opportunities for training and research in librarianship.	$3,750,000 (training) $3,550,000 (research)
Title II-C	Library of Congress shares catalog and bibliographic information with all participating libraries and organizations, through printed catalog cards, tapes and other means.	$3,000,000
Title III	Provide partial support for cooperative arrangements between developing and established institutions.	$124,407 (of a $28.5 million total appropriation) committed to eleven projects aiding college libraries in fiscal 1967.
Title IV-C	Provide part-time employment for college students.	$134,100,000
Title VI-A	Improve instruction in selected subject areas through acquisition of educational media.	$14,500,000
Titla VI-B	Improve capabilities of educational media specialists and others using such media at college level.	$2,500,000

Exhibit II
(continued)

AUTHORIZATION	PURPOSE	APPROPRIATION
Higher Education Facilities Act		
Title I	Construct or improve academic facilities for community colleges and technical institutes.	$99,660,000
Title I	Construct or improve undergraduate academic facilities for other undergraduate colleges.	$353,340,000
Title III	Loans to construct or improve higher education facilities.	$200,000,000
The Agricultural Trade Development and Assistance Act of 1954, Public Law 480	To purchase foreign publications for deposit in U.S. libraries and research centers.	$2,268,000
Depository Library Act of 1962	To make government publications available to designated depository libraries (state, public and academic libraries).	$804,840 (for printing depository copies of government publications)
National Science Foundation Act of 1950 (as amended)	Provides research grants, including library research.	$3,000,000 (estimated expenditures in fiscal 1967 for library related research)
Vocational Education Act of 1963		
Section 4(c)	Develop research and training, experimental and pilot programs for special vocational needs.	$10,000,000

Exhibit II
(continued)

AUTHORIZATION	PURPOSE	APPROPRIATION
National Foundation on the Arts and Humanities Act of 1965	Project grants and individual fellowships to strengthen research and to promote progress and scholarship in the humanities.	$2,000,000

Source: "Directory of Legislative Programs, Fiscal Year 1967," ALA Bulletin, October 1967; and "Federal Money for Education: Programs Administered by the U.S. Office of Education, Fiscal Year 1967," American Education, February 1967.

OTHER LEGISLATION AFFECTING COLLEGE LIBRARIES; FEDERAL AGENCY ACTIVITIES AFFECTING COLLEGE LIBRARIES

In addition to the legislation discussed in the preceding sections of this chapter, all of which has affected college libraries directly and on a nationwide basis, there exists a substantial body of federal legislation which affects college library service only indirectly or only in limited geographic areas. Furthermore, there are certain pieces of legislation which contain an as yet unrealized potential to influence college library services.

The federal legislation and the federal agency activities discussed in the sections which follow involve: government aid to college library construction; various information services and systems; potential federal support for specialized undergraduate curricular programs which would involve college libraries if implemented; planned programs of inter-library cooperation which will involve college libraries with other types of libraries in the provision of cooperative services within specified geographical areas; potential additional sources of federal support for the training of college library personnel; and potential federal aid for acquisition of materials and equipment for use in college library programs.

Legislation Related to College Library Construction

Three pieces of federal legislation not discussed above contain provisions which are relevant to college library construction. They are the Appalachian Regional Development Act of 1965, the Urban Renewal-Housing Act of 1949 and the Public Works and Economic Development Act of 1965.

The Appalachian Act constitutes a broad-scope federal effort to stimulate the economic and social development of the Appalachian region. The Appalachian Regional Commission established under the Act has, according to Henry T. Drennan, "allocated 6 percent of its funds from Section 214 of the Act to library construction. Through fiscal 1967, an estimated $4.1 million has been approved or is pending for library construction, with a total construction value (derived from all sources) of $74 million.[81] Of the $4.1 million of Appalachian funds, about two-thirds has been applied to public library construction and the remaining one-third (about $1.4 million) to academic library construction. The total appropriation for programs under Section 214 in fiscal 1967 is $30 million.

The provisions of the Urban Renewal Act of 1949 allow certain construction costs for college libraries, as well as for public library branches, to be used as off-setting credits in favor of the municipal contribution to any renewed project which includes construction of those kinds of libraries. The provision is clearly applicable to college library construction only under very special circumstances, but it offers definite possibilities to municipally-supported colleges located in areas where urban renewal projects are likely to be undertaken. Information on the 1967 appropriation for this legislation is not yet available.

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[81] Drennan, Henry T. "Federal Funds for Facilities." ALA Bulletin, October 1967.

The Public Works and Economic Development Act of 1965, which has received no appropriation to date, might also afford support to college library construction under special circumstances if it were funded. Like the Appalachian Act, it would provide supplementary grants to help grantees take advantage of other (matching) federal grant programs. The program would be administered by the Department of Commerce, and grants would be awarded on the basis of a proposed project's ability to contribute to economic development in its area. Public libraries which agreed to serve as regional or area libraries would be more likely to receive grants of this kind than would libraries of other types, but college libraries which agreed to supply information services to area industry might receive grants as well.

Federally Supported Information Systems and Services

A number of activities which have been provided for in federal legislation or which form part of the activities of federal agencies have actual or potential effects on college libraries in the realm of information-handling systems and information services. The LOCATE program of the Library of Congress, library-related grants made by the Department of Housing and Urban Development, the State Technical Act and certain information-handling systems devised for use by the CIA are discussed below.

LOCATE (Library of Congress Automatic Techniques Exchange) will collect and disseminate information about libraries, presumably with an emphasis on automation of library procedures. In the early stages of its operation, the exchange will limit itself to providing citations of materials already on file.

The Department of Housing and Urban Development has made two library-related grants under provisions of the Housing Act of 1954. The first of these was a $166 thousand grant to the City College of New York. This project, known as the URBANDOC project, has involved the development of a computer-based system of bibliographic control and document retrieval in the field of urban studies. Documents are indexed according to a carefully worked out code. For example, all documents produced by municipalities in a given size class receive an identifying code expressing that feature. Thus, the recipient of URBANDOC tapes can have all citations which bear that identifying size code printed out on request, or he can have printed out all entries which combine that particular size code with other identifying codes employed in the system.

The URBANDOC system exemplifies one of the important features of machine readable catalog copy: the ability to rapidly retrieve entries in accordance with a specified combination of characteristics. Some of the techniques now under development in the URBANDOC project may eventually be applied to the catalogs of entire college libraries. It should be pointed out that techniques of this kind may find general application in college libraries earlier than in research libraries because of the smaller size of most college library collections.

A smaller grant of $32 thousand has been made by the Department of Housing and Urban Development to Kent State University for development of a mechanism which will retrieve abstracts on microfilm and print out selected articles.

Akin to the Kent State project is a document storage and retrieval system which has been in use for some time by the CIA. This system, known as the WALNUT system, stores individual documents in microform and retrieves them automatically on demand. Retrieved material can then be viewed on a screen or printed out in page copy. Systems of this type are very likely to find eventual applications in college libraries.

The State Technical Services Act provides for information services to business and industry through technical information centers established on university campuses. University libraries have provided materials for these centers, but the program "has not yet had the library participation one might anticipate from its emphasis upon technical information."[81] One state library is a member of the program, and another is planning to take part. Whether or not academic libraries will play a larger role remains to be seen, but there is a definite possibility that college libraries may eventually be involved.

Not to be overlooked among federally supported information systems and services are the Library of Congress activities in the realm of automated centralized cataloging service known as Project MARC. This project and related Library of Congress activities should have a major effect upon college library services.

> "By 1972, the Library of Congress hopes to have in operation a completely automated centralized cataloging service that will relieve individual libraries of the bulk of that job. We will have machine-produced bibliographies that will save scholars endless hours of search and toil."[82]

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[81] Drennan, Henry T. "Federal Funds for Materials and Services." ALA Bulletin, October 1967.

[82] Gardner, John W., op.cit.

Secretary Gardner goes on to say:

> "In another decade, the use of library-based computer banks for the storage of taped audio-visual material will be commonplace. The resources of our great universities will then be available to students and scholars throughout the country."[83]

Title III of the Library Services and Construction Act

Funding of Title III of the Library Services and Construction Act has thus far been limited for planning purposes only. When full funding is provided, however, grants will be available for systematic and effective coordination of the resources of school, public, academic, and special libraries, as well as special information centers.

The Education Professions Development Program

A recent amendment to Title V of the Higher Education Act, entitled Education Professions Development, offers a potential source of fellowships for prospective college library personnel. The act authorizes $2.5 million for fiscal 1968 to help alleviate the shortage of educational personnel for employment in schools and colleges.

The International Education Act of 1966

The International Education Act of 1966, which has received no funding to date, would provide federal support for the establishment of graduate and undergraduate programs in international affairs in American colleges and universities. Grants might include funds for college library resources to support study programs initiated.

The Division of Library Service of the U. S. Office of Education

The Division of Library Services and Educational Facilities is a part of the Bureau of Adult, Vocational, and Library Programs. Of the various federal programs affecting college libraries, only the Higher Education Act's Title II-A and the provisions of Title II-B which provide funds for fellowship grants for training in librarianship are administered within the Division. Other programs affecting college libraries are administered in other divisions within the Office of Education, by other federal agencies or by agencies at the state level.

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[83] *Ibid.*

The decentralization of grant program administration being undertaken by the Office of Education will make for easier access to its staff by providing nine regional offices for the handling of adult, vocational and library programs.

Chapter 6

MAJOR TRENDS IN COLLEGE LIBRARY DEVELOPMENT

College library service is changing perhaps more rapidly than at any time in its history. Even greater change is in prospect for the years to come. Some of these developments are the result of forces in higher education itself, such as changes in methods of instruction and the fact that a larger proportion of the college age population is enrolled in institutions of higher education. Other changes are originating with librarianship and the college libraries themselves. These trends in the development of college library services are referred to throughout the discussion in the preceding chapters of this report. Here, they are isolated for purposes of discussion.

1. Build-up in College Library Resources Are Not Increasing as Rapidly as the College Library Service Population

While acquisitions, expenditures for college library services and the numbers of professional librarians entering college librarianship have all increased, measures such as volumes per student and the number of students served per professional librarian in academic libraries have shown unfavorable changes in recent years. Volumes per student held in academic libraries declined from a high of 52.4 volumes in 1960-61 to 45.8 volumes in 1965-66. The number of students served per professional librarian increased from 378 in 1959-60 to 454 in 1965-66.

2. Increased Demands on College Libraries Due to Changes Within the Colleges

A number of changes within colleges themselves have placed increased demands on college library services and resources. In some colleges, there has been a shift toward independent study and tutorial instruction methods. Students in many colleges display a tendency to spend increased amounts of time in the library. Students and faculty in many colleges are better prepared, more highly qualified, and more demanding of library resources than ever before. There is an increased emphasis on preparation of students for graduate study and, in fact, larger and larger percentages of college graduates are going on to graduate study.

3. The Introduction of New Technology

Rapid technological changes are taking place, both with respect to library methods and library materials. The application of machine techniques to library technical processes is gathering speed. College libraries increasingly have to deal with new equipment required for nonprint materials collections. These changes affect the kind and the mix of personnel required to staff junior and undergraduate college libraries.

4. The Changing Character of Library Materials

Though printed materials still make up the bulk of college library collections, nonprint materials are coming into greater use. They require different treatment in terms of storage, maintenance and handling. Moreover, colleges are paying more attention to non-western studies, with resulting demands for materials which are expensive and hard to obtain.

5. Increased Pressure for Inter-Library Cooperation and Service to the Non-College Public

More efficient and effective utilization of existing resources is as necessary in higher education as elsewhere. Colleges are increasing their efforts to put into practice the principles of library cooperation which have been discussed for many years. These developments include shared cataloging, in which the Library of Congress figures so prominently; coordinated systems of public college libraries; and, federated or cooperative groups of libraries in both public and private colleges. In some systems, library administration is being centralized as inter-campus library cooperation and coordination becomes a reality.

6. Greater Participation by the Federal Government

The federal government has become heavily involved in the financing of college library services, especially in construction of library buildings. Federal grants for purchase of college library materials are also assuming substantial proportions. As a group, college libraries are receiving less of their support from private donors than in the past and more from the federal government.

7. More Selective Acquisition

As the rate of publishing increases, college libraries find that they cannot continue to acquire the same percentage of published material in any given subject field. As a result, acquisition policies have become more selective.

8. Increasing Experimentation in College Library Service

More serious attempts than ever before are being made to increase both the efficiency and the effectiveness of college library services. Much experimentation involves the techniques of providing service but, more importantly, some colleges and groups of teachers and librarians have experimented with programs aimed at making use of the library an integral part of the college curriculum.

9. Changes in Library Staffing Requirements

The specialized demands of students and teachers for library services are increasingly best met by librarians who have substantial background in specific subject areas. For example, college libraries are finding it desirable to employ subject and foreign language specialists who possess training in librarianship. Moreover, as library technical processes are handled in a more sophisticated way, new kinds of technical and clerical personnel are called for. Systems analysts, operators of computing equipment and other technical personnel are being employed in greater numbers in college libraries, while the numbers of persons needed to perform manual clerical routines are expected to decline.

Chapter 7

SUMMARY OF PROBLEMS FACING UNDERGRADUATE AND JUNIOR COLLEGE LIBRARIES AND APPROACHES TO THEIR SOLUTION

Because they make available the resources of teaching, learning, and research, library services are of vital importance in every undergraduate and junior college. At the same time, it is for each college to decide exactly what role the library will play in its total educational program. Within the limits set by those decisions, however, many college libraries face problems which erode their potential contribution to the advancement of the college's educational aims.

The changes in instructional methods now taking place in many colleges call for greater support of college libraries, while developments in the technologies of recording, storing, and communicating information necessitate increased effort in research and planning for college library services. In some colleges, increased support and better planning for library services are needed quite apart from any changes in the educational process that may be occurring. In most of those cases, the problems facing the library reflect a fundamental shortage of adequate resources of every kind.

The problems of undergraduate and junior college libraries and the various approaches to their solution are summarized below to advance the deliberations of the National Advisory Commission on Libraries. Some of these issues, however, require more than the attention and consideration of the government. They are essentially the concern of college administrators and teachers, and of college librarians themselves.

1. Increased Demand for College Library Facilities

In response to the swelling demand created by rapidly rising undergraduate enrollments and by the apparent tendency of many students to make more extensive use of library resources and services, a boom in college library construction has taken place within the past few years. This has been aided by provisions of the Higher Education Facilities Act (HEFA) which provides appropriations for undergraduate and junior college library construction. Nevertheless, a large number of new institutions have opened their doors either completely without or with totally inadequate library buildings. In addition, large numbers of older colleges have outmoded library quarters.

While the Higher Education Facilities Act is by no means intended solely for library construction, many of the grants allocated to date have gone for library buildings. Colleges have given priority to library construction in applying for HEFA grants for several reasons: the need is great, capital costs for library facilities are high, and these cannot be amortized through fees charged directly to students for use.

Public support for capital construction should be increased. This could be accomplished through HEFA or alternatively, legislation similar to Title II of the Library Services and Construction Act (for public library construction on a matching basis) could be written specifically to meet the needs of college libraries. The provisions of such a program should allow for replacement or expansion of outmoded or outgrown structures. Legislative guidelines for any construction program should, to the extent feasible, insure that building plans prepared draw upon the backlog of experience which has been accumulated in the special requirements of academic library design.

2. Inadequate Collections in College Libraries

It is important that library resources appropriate to the needs of undergraduates be present in every library which serves undergraduate programs, whether that library is part of a two-year community college or a mammoth state university. The guidelines for grants for library materials made under Title II-A of the Higher Education Act emphasize the need for raising inadequate collections to meet American Library Association minimum standards in terms of books-per-student and in terms of minimum size of the total collection. It is important, however, that legislative guidelines not preclude the possibility of giving aid where minimum standards have already been achieved. To do so penalizes colleges which have met standards and fails to recognize the fact that there is a legitimate need to exceed these standards in a great many cases. Legislation providing public assistance for college library resources should reflect the necessity of building collections adequate to the particular needs of each institution.

3. Staffing Problems in College Libraries

Several problems facing college libraries relate to matters of staffing. In some colleges all professional library staff members have faculty rank, but in many others they do not. Whether or not library staff members have faculty rank, they often have lower salaries and less free time than teaching faculty members. These factors make recruitment of top quality graduate students into training for academic librarianship more difficult, at a time when the professional demands of academic librarianship are increasing rapidly.

In addition to the need for professional library staff members for traditional posts in technical processes and readers' services, there is a growing need in many college libraries for subject specialists and for newer kinds of professional personnel, such as systems analysts. The lower salaries of college librarians as opposed to teaching faculty and the fact that librarians often lack faculty rank decrease the incentive for persons with strong backgrounds in subject areas or in systems work to seek additional training in librarianship. These handicaps in salary and rank will have to be overcome if the needs of college libraries for specialized talent are to be met.

College administrators should give consideration to these factors; it may be that the interests of colleges will be served best by providing librarians co-equal status in every respect with other members of college faculties. To further ease shortages of professional librarians, non-librarians might be used in certain jobs which some college libraries have traditionally viewed as requiring library training.

Another staffing problem concerns the obsolescence of the training of college librarians who received their library degrees before the advent of many of the technical innovations now affecting college library service. Support for professional institutes for college librarians and others who plan to use audio-visual materials in instruction at the college level is already being provided under Title II-B of the Higher Education Act. This support should be extended to cover institutes for college librarians who need additional training in other areas. Institutes on the application of machine techniques to college library record-keeping, for example, are badly needed.

Finally, the need in most college libraries for increased clerical staff is acute enough as to suggest that it be covered by federal legislation, either directly through a grants program or indirectly as a component of the legislative guidelines governing existing grants for materials.

4. The Special Problems of Junior College Libraries

While well-developed libraries in junior colleges are similar to those in four-year colleges and share many of the same concerns, there are several problems that relate to these libraries specifically. For example, a full range of adequate library materials has yet to be developed for some vocational programs now being taught in junior colleges. Experimentation with service programs, facilities and resources is also required. On the average, junior college libraries own fewer volumes, employ fewer librarians and spend fewer dollars for each student enrolled than do libraries in four-year colleges or in universities. This under developed condition affects the educational experiences of junior college studnets directly, and in addition makes the recruitment of qualified persons for junior college teaching more difficult.

Planning has already begun for a project which could provide some solutions to these problems. A proposal developed by the Junior College Library Section of the Association of College and Research Libraries would establish a major demonstration project, similar to the Knapp School Libraries Project, for junior college libraries. Such a project would provide for operational experimentation and evaluation with materials, facilities and services in junior college libraries. The significance of this project for the future development of junior college libraries ought to be underscored by the National Advisory Commission on Libraries.

Public support for this and other junior college library programs, in addition to that now being provided, could take the form of grants similar to those made under Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. Such grants could be used to develop technical processing centers for junior college libraries where appropriate, although a proliferation of processing centers operating on a scale too small to be efficient should be avoided. Instructional materials centers for the production and duplication of instructional materials for junior colleges could also be supported with grants under an ESEA Title III-type program.

5. The Need for National Leadership in Technical Areas

There is a feeling among college librarians that some needs for technical leadership in developing innovative college library services are not being met, in spite of the efforts of the U. S. Office of Education, the Library of Congress, of other federal agencies whose work is sometimes related to college library concerns, and of national and regional professional organizations.

a. Leadership is required to speed implementation of multi-state, regional cooperative systems for storage and inter-library loan of materials which are seldom used but vital when needed. College library service is still a very localized concern. The interloan code "prohibits" inter-library loans for undergraduates in two and four-year colleges. Relatively little use is made of other potential cooperative arrangements to meet the needs of these students. Coordinated or cooperative efforts in the acquisition and use of library materials can mean extended service and/or reduced cost. Prerequisite to improved coordination of effort, however, is a data bank of bibliographic information on a regional or national basis. A vital task for leadership in this area is the design and implementation of a bibliographic information service responsive to the needs of college libraries.

b. College librarians need informed advice and assistance in applying the wide range of new techniques to their library's operations. The application of computer techniques is probably the leading example of a development in which guidance and efficient coordination is needed, but there are other areas, such as the use of facsimile transmission and experimentation with non-book materials.

c. The development of centralized technical processing operations, including the preparation and maintenance of catalogs, is not proceeding at a meaningful pace among undergraduate and junior college libraries. It is in the national interest that duplication of developmental efforts, as well as incompatibilities in the regional processing facilities that are established, be avoided. National leadership in standardization of systems design and computer software for undergraduate and junior college technical services is required.

d. Many college libraries, especially those which are newly established and those which are developing rapidly require consultant services for problems of librarianship and internal administration. When state libraries fail to provide this service, college librarians should have recourse to a national reservoir of specialist talent.

e. The great increases in recent years in the numbers of books and periodicals published have made the need for improved and more comprehensive undergraduate and junior college library selection tools, especially for technical materials, imperative. At least one selection periodical published within recent years has relieved pressure in the area of book selection for many undergraduate college libraries, but some needs remain unfilled. For instance, an adequate serials and periodicals buying list is badly needed.

Some of these needs are legitimately approached on a statewide basis. Others necessitate direct involvement of one or more agencies of the federal government. It is essential that the implementation and coordination of these programs receive continuing attention. An on-going National Advisory Commission on Libraries should be established for this purpose. Such a group should attach high priority to determinations of those projects involving undergraduate and junior college libraries which are best approached at the federal level, those which require the establishment of a national network of regional service centers and those which are most appropriately attended to by the individual states.

The improvements in library and information services and the efficiencies likely to result from well conceived and administered projects of the kinds discussed above justify a heavy public investment.

6. Problems Related to Copyright Restrictions

College libraries are often called upon to provide mass service in supplying assigned readings when courses have large enrollments. Whereas such demands could theoretically be met by handing out reprints or Xeroxed copies of assigned materials, it is in fact difficult to get reprints from publishers on short notice and copyright restrictions prohibit the large-scale duplication of published material.

It is not at all evident that the task of providing large numbers of duplicate copies of classroom readings would have fallen on the college library if educational practices were not hamstrung by copyright restrictions. This function need not be considered a legitimate part of the college library's role.

Whether or not individual college libraries continue to perform this task is, however, less important than the development of an understanding at the federal level of the need for providing greater flexibility in the use of copyrighted materials in educational institutions. This need does, moreover, affect practices which are within the scope of the responsibilities of the college library - specifically, the development and use of automated information storage, retrieval and transfer systems.

7. The Need for Research and Planning in College Library Service

Undergraduate and junior college librarians lack the benefits of significant research and planning in a number of important areas.

a. It is difficult to frame either undergraduate or junior college library standards which are meaningful for institutions in each category that are of different types and sizes, or which are meaningful for a multitude of purposes.

In practice, colleges vary tremendously in the development of their library resources relative to the requirements of the national standards established by the library and educational professions. Among both undergraduate and junior college libraries, one can find those which exceed the standards by wide margins and look "too good," and others which fall short of these standards.

Within the library profession, there is general recognition of the limitations of standards which do not take into account either the quality of collections or the different characteristics of undergraduate or junior college programs in different institutions. These drawbacks in the available yardsticks for measuring the "adequacy" of college libraries are, however, less well understood by college administrators and public legislators. Accordingly, research needs to be aimed at the development of "sets" of standards, depending on what aspect of college library resources and/or services is being measured and for whom the measurements are being made.

b. The significance of various levels and kinds of library service for undergraduate and junior college students and faculty needs to be explored. What kinds of facilities, resources and services best advance the programs of the undergraduate institution? the junior college? Which educational functions are best met by cooperative efforts among college libraries? between college libraries and other kinds of libraries? How appropriate are the library resources and services of the major universities for the needs of undergraduates enrolled in those institutions?

c. The prevailing patterns of introducing freshman students to the use of the college library should be analyzed. What is the relationship between expertise in the use of the library and academic success? Are the current arrangements for providing instruction in library use adequate? Would extended instruction in library use be justified in terms of improved ability of students to pursue independent study?

d. A comprehensive nationwide study of existing cooperative arrangements for joint purchasing and processing, for the storage and interloan of materials and for the performance of other library functions in undergraduate and junior college libraries is badly needed. Alternatives for cooperation also need to be explored.

e. How should college library resources and services fit into emerging regional and national plans for library service? What are the total needs of a community or a region for information services? What constitutes legitimate use of a college library by the community outside the college?

8. Problems Related to Existing Federal Legislation or Governmental Programs Affecting College Libraries

Several of the problems of undergraduate and junior college libraries are related to the provisions of existing federal legislation and/or to governmental programs affecting college libraries.

The fact that Title II-A of the Higher Education Act does not provide funds to pay salaries of additional staff or to buy equipment needed to handle the increased level of acquisitions has created pressure on clerical and processing staffs and resulted in processing backlogs in many libraries. Other problems have been aggravated by federal funding of library purchases but they are probably beyond the reach of public policy. For example, the volume of purchases financed by library Titles has slowed delivery time for acquired items and has contributed to increases in the cost of out-of-print and reprint materials.

Too frequently, federal grants for research projects to colleges or to individual college faculty members do not include a library component. Support for college and university extension programs has also often excluded recognition of the need for library services to support these programs.

College librarians find the Depository Act's restrictions on disposal of depository material outdated and wasteful. College librarians often discover that it is expensive to preserve such material yet equally expensive to dispose of it. They question the rather arbitrary limitation of two federal depositories in every congressional district. The need for government publications in some districts may justify the establishment of more than two depositories, while other districts may not need as many as two. Much of the material published by the federal government is of significant teaching value in junior colleges and other institutions which are unable to assume the depository function given the requirements of the existing depository categories. Consequently, these colleges may be restricted in their use of such materials by the necessity of making special requests for each needed item to depository libraries in their districts.

To alleviate problems associated with existing federal legislation and programs, the following steps should be taken.

- Federal research grants should include a percentage to cover the cost of associated library materials and/or services.

- Title I of the Higher Education Act (for support of college and university extension programs) should be modified to include a library component and the Title should be funded accordingly.
- The number of federal document depositories within a district should be based on the needs for government publications present within that district. An analysis of the rule governing the disposal of depository material should be made, with an eye toward increasing the overall cost-effectiveness of maintenance of these materials. Consideration should be given to the establishment of a limited depository status (distinct from the categories which now exist) to fill the needs of junior colleges and other institutions for access to government publications.

9. Problems Associated with Lack of Focus in the Educational Programs of Parent Institutions

Since the undergraduate or junior college library is not independent of its parent institution, it may have problems which merely reflect those of the institution as a whole. If the college or junior college itself is uncertain about the aims of its educational program, then the role of the library and the long-range policies which should be promoted by the library staff are ambiguous. Problems of this sort are often among the most fundamental and pressing operational issues facing many college libraries. Solutions, which are not easily achieved, are generally not within the realm of public policy. Nonetheless, the existence of such difficulties must be recognized by administrators, teachers and librarians if college libraries are to make the maximum possible contribution to the education of students.

Appendix A

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